

The Nation.

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The Week.

THE news from the Plains is full of rumors of an Indian rising, and outrages of greater or less gravity are reported all the way from Pembina in the north down to the frontier of Mexico. The army is too small to display much activity over so wide an area, and General Sherman jokes grimly over the Indian policy of the Department of the Interior, which, he says, sends the warriors and ponies fat and sleek in spring to ravage the frontier, and receives them back in the fall like returned prodigals. The testimony of all respectable white men who have lived on the Plains is, however, that the Indians are more sinned against than sinning, and that their risings usually have behind them a solid support of cheating and cruelty. They are swindled by the contractors out of their lawful subsidies, and they are roused into quitting their reservations by the fact that they are constantly being shifted from good land to worse, in compliance with the intrigues of knavish land speculators at the Department of the Interior. Probably nothing could happen at this moment that would seal up such a fountain of white iniquity so well as the death of the last Indian. The cool way in which General Grant has allowed his Indian Commissioners to be driven out of their offices by the Ring knaves, is a striking illustration of the official nonchalance of which we have spoken in another paragraph.

We are apparently at last about to have some light on the affairs of the Erie Railroad. A meeting of the directors was held on Tuesday, at which Mr. Watson, the President, presented, pending the completion of his own report, that of the two auditors appointed to overhaul the books after the withdrawal of Dunan. It appears from their report that Dunan, by omissions and irregularities, made it appear that there was a surplus of over two millions when there was in reality a deficit of over one hundred thousand, and that although the dividend recently declared was really earned during the period assigned for its production, of course there was no money which could, had the truth been known, have been properly used for paying it. Dunan's "revelations" last spring would thus be explained even if they had not been disposed of by the admitted falsehoods of his statements at the Attorney-General's investigation, and there appears to be little doubt that he has confessed himself a knave in the interest of a stock-jobbing operation. What are the prospects of the road, however, it will be difficult to say until Mr. Watson's report appears. The examination made by Captain Tyler and the English accountants who are over here is said to have resulted favorably, or at least to have revealed a more satisfactory state of things than they had expected.

The Cincinnati *Commercial* thinks the New York *Tribune* is incorrect, as well as injudicious, in maintaining that the result of the Wisconsin railroad law, if enforced, will be that the corporations will buy up the legislators, and holds that not only will saying this exasperate the Grangers, but that these latter will have no difficulty in electing legislators who will not be corruptible on this point; that no legislature dare take bribes to act in opposition to the popular wish, when it is clearly expressed and strongly felt and the people knows its own mind. This is doubtless true of great and distinctly defined questions, such as slavery or secession, but it is not true of matters of dollars and cents (or rather of cents), the right or wrong of which no man can tell, and which are never finally settled. The rate which a railroad ought to charge would come up in Wisconsin every year, and there would be one hundred good

excuses for changing which the farmer could not understand or weigh, and which might appear insignificant to him. To suppose that the public would keep its mind so steadily fixed on the matter as to prevent bribery is preposterous. Besides, if the companies do not have to pay the politicians for raising the rates, the politicians will certainly before long insist on being paid for not lowering them, and of this the godlike farmer would know nothing.

The *Railroad Gazette* of last week has a useful and instructive article, the reading of which, however, gives one a sensation which is, we imagine, very similar to that which one would experience from passing an evening with a band of communicative brigands in Calabria or Greece. It contains a calculation of the pecuniary gains to Wisconsin of carrying out her railroad law, and starts with the assumption that, as but few railroad proprietors live in Wisconsin, the people will have no hesitation in squeezing all they can out of the corporations, without any regard to the morality of the matter. It shows that there is but little comfort to be derived from the notion that the law does not affect inter-State transportation, because, if it be dearer to send grain to Chicago outside the State than to Milwaukee within it, the grain will go to Milwaukee. It prognosticates as a probable effect of the law, if enforced, the wiping out of the railroad stock, and the reduction of the bondholders' interest to about two per cent. on their bonds, which will then be no more valuable than stock. Then, although the State can do for some years without new roads, it cannot do without new and additional rolling-stock and repairs, which, however, the owners of the roads would never think of providing, knowing them to be subject to confiscation. The result would speedily be that the roads would run down until they were unworkable, and the State would then have to take possession of them, and spend a large amount of money on them, raised by taxation. Indeed, the *Gazette* says that taking possession of the roads at a valuation, and working them by State officials, is "the only course compatible in the long run with the authority of the State to fix rates of transportation in communities like those of the Northwest," where there are no resident capitalists and nobody to say a word for vested interests. The trial of such a system by one State, it thinks, would be of inestimable advantage to the stockholders of roads in other States, for obvious reasons.

The Republican magnates have prepared an address to their party, and it is to be issued in time for effect upon the Congressional elections. It naturally has two main topics—the currency and the transportation question. Perhaps we might better say that it has three main topics—the two we have mentioned and another one which every now and then crops out, namely, the futility of looking to the Democratic party for any real friendship to the country or any real service. It is Short that is the friend, not Codlin, as Mr. Short says in 'The Old Curiosity Shop.' "Whatever may or may not be expedient to be done," says the address, "this much seems certain, only the Republican party can be relied on to do it. The Democratic party has forsworn all such labors." And again: "If you do not mean to retrace your steps, you will select Republicans and not Democrats. If you mean to go forward in the future, you will select Republicans and not Democrats;" not Codlin but Short. Of lesser matters a number are touched upon, some of which are not a little musty. Of these the foreign policy of the Democracy is one, and the Committee assert of this policy that it has hardly a memory at which the citizen will not blush. Witness our bullying Austria (the Martin Koszta case and the Hülseman letter); the spoliation of Mexico; the demolition of Greytown; the trucking to Great Britain in the matter of the Northwestern boundary (Polk and Marcy); and the Northeastern, between Maine and New Brunswick (Tyler and the Webster-Ashburton Treaty).

As to this last, the address seems to bear the ear-marks of Mr. Blaine's property: "While by successive concessions we were constantly adding to the area of the Canadas, we stupidly relinquished to their products free access to our markets," etc. etc. The home record of the Democrats is also brought forward, but the printed synopsis of the forthcoming document does not go into particulars.

As regards the currency, the Committee who prepared the address say that it "is in an abnormal condition, and must be reformed," and while they admit that the Republican party is not agreed upon the method of effecting this reform, yet the Democratic party, they urge, is not any more ready: "Neither party, as such, yet sees clearly the right way." Yet two reasons are visible for believing that the Republicans can deal with the question better than their rivals. In the first place, as the former have at one time and another found their way through greater difficulties than this, so they may be supposed more able than the Democrats to dispose of this one. In the second place, the country may feel sure that when Republicans discover the true way they will pursue it, but that the Democrats will do as much there is nobody to go bail. The method adopted with respect to the cheap-transportation controversy is better than might have been expected. A glance is given at the great bulk of our agricultural products and at the need of getting them as cheaply as possible to the sea, and then brief consideration is bestowed on the various expedients for doing this. The first mentioned is the proposal for State regulation of the rates of fare and freight, and it is observed that "the objections to it are so serious that it should not be embraced if a better can be found."

. . . This country, so new, so raw, needs capital, and any policy which would tend to drive capital from us should be avoided if possible." Yet if on the one hand the people of the State, who are the purchasers of transportation, are eager to buy it as cheap as they can, and even to buy it cheaper than they ought, on the other hand the railroad companies, the sellers of transportation, naturally wish to get as much as possible for their commodity, more perhaps than they ought. What, then, shall be done? The interests of both purchaser and seller are closely intertwined and practically identical, and it may be hoped that a way will be hit upon—but by the Republicans of course, not by the Democrats, who traditionally hate all internal improvements.

The charges against Mayor Havemeyer have been formally presented to Governor Dix, who has sent him notice of them and called on him to answer. Since then the old gentleman has been pestered by reporters wanting to know what he is going to do, and he meets their attacks with his usual gaiety, pretending not to be troubled and pleading ignorance of nearly everything unpleasant in his position. People think, he says, that the charges against him are "a big thing"; "but a balloon is a big thing, and yet the prick of a pin will let the gas out of it," and then he chuckles over his own joke. His excuse for reappointing Charlick and Gardner is that the families of these men are disgraced by their conviction, and he owes it to their children to rehabilitate them, which is also a good joke; but it shows that Havemeyer with all his folly is a man of his time. In fact, he furnishes a very interesting illustration of the way in which what we may call the Tweed "style" has taken possession of men in politics in all parts of the country. A jaunty, indifferent air, in the practice of which Tweed was a great master, a tone of contempt for newspaper and other criticism, an affected ignorance of the commoner subjects of popular excitement and indignation, and an ostentatious devotion to all colleagues and subordinates, under all circumstances and in defiance of all charges, as "comrades" or "brother officers," and a readiness to meet all pursuit of them by promotion or translation to a fresh place, are among the characteristics which a large number of men in public life now seem to take a pride in. It is a fashion which will speedily pass away, and strikingly resembles, on a lower plane, the tone Palmerston for a few years introduced into public life in England. That Have-

meyer should have caught it so readily in his old age shows how subtle and penetrating such an influence is. Among the chief fomenters of it in this country are General Grant, General Butler, Senator Conkling, Boss Tweed of course, and Boss Shepherd, and they have a host of smaller followers. One of the most amusing recent exhibitions of it was Senator Howe's affected ignorance, towards the close of the moiety investigation in the Senate, of anything wrong with Jayne. He did not know what all this fuss was about; all he could learn of Jayne was that he had collected so much money for the Government, etc., etc.

Mr. Henry Ward Beecher's determination, which he seems to have reached immediately upon the appearance of the Tilton letter, to have the matter investigated by a committee of his own church, has given a good deal of relief to multitudes who are deeply interested in having his good name preserved, if for no other reason, because they believe that the fair fame of such a man as he cannot be destroyed without serious injury to things of more importance than any man's fame. The investigation is, at this writing, in progress, and the committee give the public to understand that it is thorough, and that the doors are open to all Mr. Beecher's accusers. We mean to cast no imputation on the committee when we say that the result, if favorable to Mr. Beecher, would be more satisfactory if some of the members did not belong to Plymouth Church, and if they had not all been selected by himself. The community as well as the church is interested in the matter, and ought to be represented. This would be true even if there was not in every church a good deal of ordinary mundane *esprit de corps*, which is not a judicial quality.

The white men of New Orleans have recently held a political meeting, which was so well attended that newspapers friendly to the cause asserted it to have been a very large gathering. Considering the fact that Louisianians have of late seen fit to make more than one formal appeal to their fellow-citizens at the North for protection, sympathy, and support, we doubtless are free to say that the white people of New Orleans are yet in some ignorance as to the condition of Northern opinion, and that they had better let the Democracy carry a few more important States before they placard such sentiments as make up the manifesto of the Crescent City White League. Much that is said is well said; but to tell the truth, the document cannot be read without feeling as if its authors were impatient young White Leaguers, with their fingers on the triggers of their pistols, and all ready, if not more than ready, for another 1866 riot of vastly larger proportions. They declare that once there was a time when they thought the negro could be induced by persuasion to see that his interests were identical with those of his white fellow-citizens, but it is long since they have been forced to discard that vision. Everywhere around them they see "the most absurd inversions of race." Negroes are not only incessant in demanding offices for which they have no qualification except the color of their skin, but in their conventions they develop a spirit of proscription against all white men including Republican ex-soldiers; the negro arrogance knows no bounds; and "the hereditary civilization of Louisiana is threatened and menaced by a stupid Africanization," for nothing less is intended than to drive every white man out of the State, and to make of it a second Hayti. Under these circumstances, "it is worse than idle to reason with these people," and what the address proposes, almost in so many words, is a league of white men pledged to fight, if need be, for their liberties against negro insolence and despotism, and apparently expecting that the fight may begin at no distant day.

While all this appears to be, as political action, extremely ill-judged, and certainly will meet with commendation from few or no people at the North, and especially from no persons of political influence, we may properly bear in mind that it is frank, whereas it need not have been; and that the provocation has been tremendous.

Here, for instance, is how Gov. Kellogg collects the taxes, the collection of which is the proof of how fond of him the Louisianians are :

"That of the taxpayers who are now or shall become delinquent by the non-payment of taxes on real estate, as is provided for in this act, and shall have been so returned upon the rolls of the tax collector to the auditor of public accounts, the auditor shall publish in the official journal of the parish in which such delinquent resides, or by public notice when there is no official journal, by three insertions within ten days, the name, residence of, and amount due from such delinquent taxpayer; and such delinquent taxpayer shall, after thirty days, *forfeit his right to bring suit or be a witness for or in his own behalf before any justice, parish, district, or State court; and every court having jurisdiction within the State shall deny and refuse to issue a civil process of any kind or nature whatever in his own name or for his own benefit*, until he shall, if a resident of the parish of New Orleans, have procured from the auditor of public accounts, or, if a resident of a country parish, from the tax collector thereof, a certificate setting forth that all such claims for delinquent taxes and costs thereon against said delinquent taxpayer have been paid."

In other words, if McEnery does not pay his taxes to Kellogg, he is made an outlaw.

The announcement that he is going home to Ireland will be the first news to the greater part of the public that Mr. John Mitchel, one of the Irish agitators of 1848 and the years just preceding, and afterwards a resident of this country, has still been living here. When he first came over in 1854, the ardor of the Slievegammon days and the Slievegammon Funds had somewhat abated, but there yet remained a welcome for men like Mitchel not only from his countrymen, but also from many Americans. It is not now quite as it was then; witness the experience of Rochefort and Bradlaugh; but at that time it was inconceivable that any rebel (so he was white) against any government anywhere in the world, should not be received with effusion at first, and afterwards, if he behaved himself, or if he misbehaved himself with judgment, assisted to get on his legs again and succeed. Mr. Mitchel, however, was an inconsiderate man, of a senseless violence of thought and speech, of an overbearing, arrogant disposition, and with an opinion of himself and his importance which he was very soon almost alone in entertaining. He set on foot here in New York a paper called the *Citizen*, but he made little or nothing of it, and by-and-by, with his usual skill in discovering the main streams of public life and thought, he became a characteristically bitter and headlong advocate of pro-slavery doctrines. Many of his American friends who would have hailed a victory, or a hatful of them, at Slievegammon, and would have liked to see the Republic of Ireland proclaimed, with Meagher of the Sword at the head of the army for the invasion of England, he disgusted by his well-chosen declaration that he would be very glad of an Alabama plantation stocked with good fat niggers. Nor was his warmth of zeal especially pleasing to the Southerners, among whom he desired to cast his lot. In short, he was a new-comer, unfitted for anything but dabbling in politics, and very ill fitted for that except as an unbridled tongue could fit him, who made himself injudiciously busy, and whose behavior was suspected to discover as little sincerity as modesty or good sense. During the war he was a secessionist, and we dimly remember that at or towards the end of it he contrived to make a disturbance by getting a newspaper, of which he was the slashing editor, into difficulties with the Government. He now goes back to Ireland with the avowed intention of trying to get into Parliament as a Home Ruler. We believe he goes back with an unfulfilled sentence still hanging over him, but his hopes of martyrdom are probably slender. He is an unfavorable specimen of a poor breed from whom Ireland has probably suffered more than she will suffer again, but whose existence is not the less to be regretted.

On Wednesday week there would have been another "ministerial crisis" at Versailles if it were not for the determination of Marshal MacMahon, to which we have already referred, to govern in the Prussian and not in the English way—that is, to consider the ministry responsible to him and not to the Assembly. Accordingly,

after a motion of the Legitimist, M. Lucien Brun, regretting the suspension of the *Union* by the Government had been negatived, another by M. Paris, of the Right Centre, declaring that the Assembly upheld the Septennial powers of the President of the Republic, and, reserving the other questions submitted to the Constitutional Committee, passed to the order of the day, was put and lost by 368 to 331, whereupon the ministry tendered their resignations, and Marshal MacMahon refused to receive them. The Marshal, who is evidently getting rather tired of the performances of the Assembly, on the following day sent it a message, in which he declared that the Assembly, in giving him the executive power for seven years, "imposed duties on him for which he was accountable to France, and from which he could in no case be permitted to withdraw," and that these powers were irrevocable. He then said that it must go on and complete its work, that the Assembly could not meditate tearing up its engagements, and that the country demanded "the organization of the public powers" and "the settlement of reserved questions." An attempt was then made to dissolve the Assembly as incompetent to perform the work demanded by the Marshal, but it failed, and the motion was referred to the Committee on Parliamentary Initiative, in which there is a Radical majority.

On Friday, M. Fourtou, Minister of the Interior, appeared before the Committee of Thirty, which is charged with the drafting of constitutional bills, and explained in detail the Marshal's views as to what "the organization of the Septennat" meant. He is prepared to accept the plan of a Second Chamber, in which he should have the power of nominating a large proportion of the members; but insists that members of the Assembly should be elected by districts, and not on a general ticket as now, and that he should have the power of dissolving the Lower Chamber. There appears to be no serious opposition to all this, except among the Legitimists, who are very downcast—probably over the revelation recently made by the London *Times's* correspondent (apparently on information received from the Duc de Broglie), that the restoration last year was frustrated by the mulish obstinacy of the Count de Chambord with regard to the white flag, the appearance of which as a substitute for the tricolor Marshal MacMahon declared would "cause the chassepots to go off of themselves."

There is little news from Spain, but what there is is favorable to the Carlists, who gain rather than lose ground. There are no fresh signs of a definitive organization of the Government. The present one is in the meantime meeting the financial difficulties of the situation, which are of course very great, by subjecting the national creditors to another swindling process. The Spanish bondholders have for nearly thirty years been objects of pity on the Exchanges of London and Amsterdam; they now seem likely to become objects of contempt as well. Our readers may remember the compromise with them which was entered into over a year ago, and which was explained at the time in the *Nation*, and which, passing over details, may be best described as the process known among defaulting railroads in this country as "funding your coupons." The Government creditors were in short asked to fund their overdue coupons in a five per cent. bond, secured by a deposit of certain mine and national land certificates. The bonds issued were for much less than the amount due, and under the most favorable circumstances the creditors would have lost heavily. But it now turns out that even this poor compromise will not be executed. The promised security for the bonds has not been put up, and the creditors will receive nothing. In the meantime, the return of Serrano to Madrid has been taken by the British Government as a sign that the Government is sufficiently strong to bear a peremptory application for redress for the shooting of the British subjects found among the crew of the *Virginus*. This was made by the Liberal Ministry, and Lord Derby is now pressing it. The difficulty of "the Republic" in meeting it will be considerably aggravated by the fact that the officer who committed the butchery at Santiago has since been promoted.

THE GRANGER METHOD OF REFORM.

THERE is no doubt that there was to be found in railroad management plenty of reason for great dissatisfaction on the part of the public before the Granger movement had ever been heard of. Rings among the managers of the roads, for the purpose of defrauding the company by making contracts with it, or furnishing it supplies above the market rates, had become shamefully common. So had the practice of stockjobbing on the part of directors. So had dishonest secrecy, and equivocation in the transaction of its business; but from all these things it was the shareholders who suffered. The things of which the public had to complain were the corrupting influence of corporations on the State legislatures; the corrupt discriminations made in freight charges in favor of particular persons, with whom the officers of the roads had a secret understanding; the occasional raising of charges in the absence of competition, and occasional failures to lower them as much as the abundance of business would have warranted; a general want of civility and of a spirit of accommodation on the part of railroad officials. But of all these causes of dissatisfaction, the charges for freight and passengers were the most trifling. Few, if any, roads charged exorbitantly or even unreasonably. The mass of railroads did not indeed charge enough to pay ordinary interest on their cost, and that none were really extortionate was shown by the rapid growth of the country in wealth and population along all the great lines. The first great fuss about railroad charges originated with the seaports on the Atlantic, which were competing for the business of supplying the West with manufactures and exporting its produce. It was and is of the last importance to Boston, New York, and Philadelphia to draw the Western custom to their own wharves and warehouses, and they have therefore all three been for years filling the air with speculations as to the best mode of making transportation cheap for the Western farmers. In the course of these speculations the railroads naturally came in for a good deal of abuse, and it was the earliest abuse which they received, and the fight between these cities was one with which the Western farmer for years never thought of meddling. Indeed, there was no occasion for his meddling, because he had the market to himself for a good while. As long as he stood within reasonable distance of the seaboard, he had no difficulty not only in beating all the Eastern States out of cattle-raising and grain-growing, which he did very speedily, but in beating all competitors out of the European market. Accordingly, it was a matter of perfect indifference to him where his produce was shipped, and he left the New York and Boston and Philadelphia "speculators" to sweat over the problem of cheap carriage.

When, however, the Government began the policy of offering the public lands at low rates to settlers, so as to entice "the pauper laborers of Europe" to this country, and the various States began, with the hearty support of the public, to subsidize and otherwise encourage the construction of railroads running out into the wilderness, so as to force the settlement of these lands, the crisis which we are now witnessing was prepared. This policy was equivalent to the offer of a heavy bounty on agricultural products, and it has forced into the business of farming in the West an enormous and of course undue proportion of the labor of the country. It has done this, too, to the serious injury of our civilization and politics, because the cheapness of land and the facility of transportation have led to the scattering of inhabitants over areas so vast that the educating influence of density of population—one of the most valuable—is lost.

As soon, of course, as corn and other produce began to be raised in greater quantities than could be disposed of in the home markets, and at such distances from the European markets as to be unable to bear the cost of transportation, the cheap-freight problem began to occupy the farmer's mind seriously. For some years, when he had to burn his corn as fuel, the Eastern manufacturers tried to persuade him that all that was needed in the way of remedy was to raise the tariff so as to bring "the toiling millions of Europe"

over here to eat his produce, and this, with the feverish demand kept up by the war, pacified him for a while. But as railroads continued to be built, and as settlers continued to push out in the wilderness, and the wilderness to be held up to admiration as the paradise of the young man, and "the hardy pioneer" to be painted as among the noblest of the race, the want of a market became more and more pressing, and the Western farmer more and more sensible that he had somehow got into a false position. And he *had* got into a false position. He had produced too much, in a reckless way, under the influence of applause and encouragement from people who had not weighed their words, and he is now suffering from a glut which nothing but a restriction of cultivation, until population grows up to the level of that now going on, will cure. In other words, farming and colonization have been overdone in the United States. The farmer has shared in the folly of the railroad-builders; but instead of meeting the situation patiently and bravely, he is looking around in the most comic way for somebody to throw the blame upon, or force into saving him from the consequences of his own mistakes. It was said after the panic last fall that we were suffering from the consequences of a railroad debauch; it may be said with equal truth that we are suffering from a land debauch. The poor railroad man is, however, pocketing his losses, and going quietly to work again in the hope of better times; the farmer, on the contrary, seems disposed to occupy himself while he is waiting for a market by robbing on the highway.

The way in which he and his friends are just now trying to conceal from themselves and the public the real nature of the interesting and instructive economic crisis through which the West is passing, has been well illustrated by a paper which Mr. W. C. Flagg, a farmers' champion from Illinois, read before the Social Science Association in this city last May, which that body is going to print among its transactions, and which Mr. Flagg was invited to deliver before the students by the President of Cornell University, at the last commencement, and which he did deliver, if correctly reported, with numerous aggravations. We refer to it because it is the only attempt we know of to make a formal statement of the farmers' wrongs. In it the American farmer—the hardy, independent, and intelligent freeholder of whom the country has been boasting for ninety years, and who really has made it what it is—is treated as the regular successor of the mediæval serf and villein, and as the equivalent and companion in misfortune of the English hinds now striking for higher wages. The American farmer is imitating Wat Tyler, and Jack Cade, and Jacques Bonhomme, we are told, in rising against his feudal masters; and, looking around for these masters and not knowing exactly who they were, he has decided it must be "the railroads and the middlemen," says Mr. Flagg, "and subsequent discussion has shown he was not far wrong." Mr. Flagg goes on to enumerate the "farmers' grievances," the first of which is that while the manufacturing, mining, and industrial wealth of the country has increased eleven per cent. per annum, the agricultural wealth has increased only four per cent. per annum between 1860 and 1870, which he gravely told the young men at Cornell "constituted a most serious charge against the political economy of the country." The second "grievance" is that, while Congress contains only one farmer to every 228,000 farmers in the country, "trade and transportation" furnish one of the class engaged in them to every 26,000 persons; "professional and personal pursuits" furnish one to every 10,800; manufacturing, mechanics, and mining one to 208,000. The result is, he says, that "freights from the West to the seaboard pay or are compelled to pay a heavy tax over and above the necessary cost of transportation." Another grievance is that banking and other moneyed corporations are allowed to make twenty per cent. on their capital, while farming pays only four. We cannot go through the whole list. Since the clubs were closed in Paris in 1871, we have not read a more extraordinary production presented in the guise of a contribution to political economy or "social science."

The attack on the railroads in Wisconsin, without the least re-

gard to the facts or figures of the case, is a legitimate outcome of the agitation which has been going on for the last two years. This agitation received its first stimulus, as we have said, and its only legitimate one, from some of the recent revelations of railroad fraud and mismanagement, beginning with the Erie revelations, and including those of the *Crédit Mobilier* affair. The second came from the anticipations entertained by the Liberal Republicans, who were disheartened at the result of their campaign, and by a considerable portion of the Republican party who voted for Grant under a sort of compulsion and longed for the formation of a respectable opposition, that the Granger movement would develop into a reform party, and would attack all existing abuses, including, as the free-traders thought, the tariff. We ceased to share these hopes almost from the outset, because it was quite plain from the earliest utterances of the organization that its mind was set on getting its goods carried to market cheaply by *somebody*, and that all it had to say about other concerns was buncombe. Its very earliest act, as we now see, is to add an enormous aggravation to one of the grossest and most dangerous abuses of American politics, and the one which reformers of all shades of opinion have for a long time been trying to uproot, viz., the power of legislatures over corporations. It is well known that there is not a legislature at the North which this power has not in some degree debauched. In this State and in Pennsylvania it had almost destroyed the government, reducing the legislators to the status of mere lacqueys or nominees of speculators. Jay Gould testified that the purchase of legislators was a regular department of his business, and the revelations of Harrisburg were hardly less noisome than those of Albany, and yet all that legislatures have hitherto been asked to do is to grant charters and amendments to charters. In Wisconsin, and in Illinois and Iowa and Minnesota, however, the practice has actually been begun of authorizing the legislature to raise and lower railroad charges, practically without limit, from year to year, thus giving the members a power which will, according to all experience, make them purchasable as cattle; and that railroad managers will deal in them hereafter almost as freely as in stocks, no intelligent man need be told. The attack on property in which the movement has resulted, is therefore really its least serious feature. Property in such large masses as the railroads has never yet in this country failed to take care of itself in the long run. What we have most to fear from it is a still deeper degradation of politics, by an enormous aggravation of the existing venality, and of the fatal disease of the European democracy, which consists not only in imputing all the evils of one's condition to the government, but in expecting all improvement from it.

WHY PEOPLE LIKE TO LIVE ABROAD.

ABOUT this time there is every year a great deal of discussion of the best mode of spending the summer, and the course of the people who go to Europe, instead of submitting to the discomfort and extortion of American hotels, is for the most part greatly commended. The story told about the hotels and lodging-houses is the same every year. The food is bad, the rooms uncomfortable, and the charges high. This year there is an additional wail over the growing dislike of "country places"; land along the Hudson is declining rather than rising in value; most of the "mansions" and "country seats" are in the market, or ready for it. The fashion, except perhaps at Newport and Beverly, near Boston, and one or two other highly favored localities, grows stronger and stronger, to live in the city in the winter and spend the three hot months in France or England or Switzerland. Moreover, the accounts which come from Europe of the increase in the number of American colonists now to be found in every attractive town of the Continent, are not exactly alarming, but they are sufficient to set people thinking. The number of those who pass long years in Europe, educate their children there, and retain little connection with America beyond drawing their dividends, grows steadily, and as a general rule they are persons whose minds or manners or influence

makes their prolonged absence a sensible loss to our civilization. Moreover, when they come back, they find it difficult to stay, and staying is not made easy for them. People here are a little suspicious of them, and are apt to fancy that they have got out of sympathy with American institutions, and have grown too critical for the rough processes by which the work of life in America has in a large degree to be done. They themselves, on the other hand, besides being soured by the coldness of their reception, are apt to be disgusted by the want of finish of all their surroundings, by the difficulty with which the commoner and coarser needs are met in this country, and by the reluctance with which allowance is made by legislation and opinion for the gratification of unusual or unpopular tastes. The result is a breach, which is already wide, and tends to widen, between the class which is hard at work making its fortune and the class which has either made its fortune or has got all it desires, which is the same thing as a fortune. There is a good deal of work which this latter would like to do. There is a great deal of the work of legislation and administration and education for which it is eminently fitted, but in which, nevertheless, it has little or no chance of sharing, owing to the loss of the art of winning the confidence of others, and working with others, which is more easily learnt in America than elsewhere, and which is readily lost by prolonged residence in any European country, and the absence of which here makes all other gifts for practical purposes almost worthless. So that it must be said that the amount of intellectual and æsthetic culture which an American acquires in Europe is somewhat dearly purchased. When he gets home, he is apt to find it a useless possession, as far as the world without is concerned, unless he is lucky enough, as sometimes but not often happens, to drop into some absorbing occupation, or to lose his fortune. Failing this, he begins that melancholy process of vibration between the two continents in which an increasingly large number of persons pass a great part of their lives; their hearts and affections being wholly in neither.

What the remedy for this state of things is it would be hard to say. That it is not to be found in preaching patriotism is quite certain. There is something a little comic in many of the sermons one reads on this subject. People do not love home and country from a sense of duty, or through conviction, any more than they love their mothers, and therefore cannot be argued into it. No people in the world stay at home because they ought. They stay because they like it; and a country which becomes to a man an object of duty rather than an object of affection becomes speedily a bore, of which he is glad to be rid. Probably no remedy will be found soon. A good deal of the summer travel to Europe may be lessened by the improvement of accommodations at home. Country life may and doubtless will become more attractive through the improvement in the roads, the condition of which is what is killing country life in this part of the country. Men who have got used to Park roads in this city will not submit very long to live on the dirt roads which the country road-masters so laboriously repair every year by heaping up muck on them out of the ditches; but it is safe to say we shall witness before many years competition between neighborhoods in the making and repair of roads, as a means of enhancing the value of real estate. Good roads have made the fortune of Switzerland; they are making the fortune of Newport; and they would make the fortune of the Hudson River. A broad, well-kept macadamized route, running up to the Highlands, with occasional branches, and with good sidewalks, would bring back to real-estate owners, we have no doubt, the happy hopeful times of fifteen years ago. The condition of our country roads alone is enough to send any man to Europe in summer who loves either walking or riding. We need a state of things in which a man need not possess horses of matchless speed to prevent people "giving him their dust."

The remedy for the mania for *living* abroad is a more elaborate one, and one needing more time for its creation. No country retains the hearty affection of its educated class which does not feed its imagination. The more we cultivate men, the higher their

ideals grow in all directions, political and social, and they like best the places in which these ideals are most satisfied. The long and varied history of older countries offers their citizens a series of pictures which stimulate patriotism in the highest degree; and it will generally be found that the patriotism and love of home of the cultivated class is in the ratio of the supply of this kind of food. They are languid among the Russians, and among the Germans prior to the late war, as compared to the English and French. In default of a long history, however, historic incidents are apt to lose their power on the imagination through over-use. The jocose view of Washington and of the Pilgrim Fathers, of Bunker Hill and of the Fourth of July, already gains ground rapidly among us, through too great familiarity. When Professor Tyndall, in one of his lectures here, made an allusion which he meant to be solemn and impressive, to Plymouth Rock, its triteness drew a titter from the audience which for a moment confounded him. Unluckily, history cannot be made to order. It is the product of ages. The proper substitute for it, as well as for the spectacular effects of monarchy, in new democratic societies, is perfection. There is no way in which we can here kindle the imaginations of the large body of men and women to whom we are every year giving an increasingly high education so well as by finish in the things we undertake to do. Nothing does so much to produce despondency about the Republic, or alienation from republican institutions, among the young of the present day, as the condition of the civil service, the poor working of the Post-office and the Treasury or the courts, or the helplessness of legislators in dealing with the ordinary everyday problems. The largeness of the country, and the rapidity of its growth, and the comparatively low condition of foreign nations in respect to freedom, which roused people in Fourth-of-July orations forty years ago, have like the historical reminiscences lost their magic, and the material prosperity is now associated in people's minds with so much moral corruption that the mention of it produces in some of the best of us a feeling not far removed from nausea. Nothing will do so much now to rouse the old enthusiasm as the spectacle of the pure working of our administrative machinery, of able and independent judges, a learned and upright bar, a respectable and purified custom-house, an enlightened and efficient Treasury, and a painstaking Post-office. The colleges of the country and the railroads, and indeed everything that depends on private enterprise, are rapidly becoming objects of pride; but a good deal needs to be done by the Government to prevent its being a source of shame.

Correspondence.

MAGNANIMITY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your article on "Universities in Politics," there is put into the mouth of Gen. Bartlett a bit of ethics which needs explanation, viz., "that all who shared in it [the war of the rebellion], victors or vanquished, helped to save the country and establish its government."

When Israel Putnam killed that noted wolf, did he and the wolf together help to save the neighboring sheep and establish their security?

To answer that the rebels were not wolves is not pertinent: First, because the wolf thought his right to eat sheep a good one; the wolf ate or ever man owned. Secondly, because the true and only question is, Whether the wolf, in fighting Putnam, *a fortiori* helped to save the sheep?

It seems to me that we are applying our slipshod good nature, under the name of magnanimity, to the persons lately in rebellion. It is the same spirit that you are wont to call sentimentalism—the spirit that says of every criminal: "Poor fellow! let him out of prison; with his disadvantages, we should have done as he did."

Whether we speak of God's government, or use the phrase of the now numerous all-knowing ones who call it the natural evolution of morals, the fact remains that a crime is never forgotten in that evolution—its vibrations continue always.

Every man who drew sword or shouldered musket to break down the Union committed a crime, greater or less according to his knowledge or his

ignorance. I will be second to no one in advocating the full forgiveness of that crime, and in aiding its perpetrators to regain prosperity and happiness; for revenge is base, and has nothing to do with a proper distinction between vice and virtue. To recognize crime, yet forgive and aid the criminal, is magnanimous. To put vice on a level with virtue is to be morally weak.

Others may think as they please; whenever I look on those tablets in Memorial Hall, I shall say: These men died in upholding the right against the wrong.

T.

[Our version of the story is this: Putnam and the wolf had been for a great many years sharing the guardianship of the sheep, and on perfectly friendly terms, and holding the flock in common, and under a formal agreement as to the division of duties and profits. They finally differed on various points, and the wolf grew more and more cantankerous and threatening, and finally announced his determination to take his half of the flock and withdraw, which Putnam declined for various reasons to permit, and both parties then agreed to settle it by a fight, but not with deadly weapons, for Putnam declared at the outset that his object was not to kill the wolf, but to bring him to reason, and compel him to continue in the partnership. They accordingly fought, and the wolf got a tremendous cudgelling, and cried for quarter, and agreed not only to go on with the business on the old footing, but never to propose a dissolution of the partnership again, and to perform all the duties and lead the life of a sheep dog. Putnam was very glad to settle the matter on these terms, and always said that inasmuch as he had to live with the wolf, and raise sheep in conjunction with him, and rely on him for a considerable share of the watching, and really at heart respected and esteemed him, he felt that his true policy was to treat him well, and do what he could to soothe and pacify him, and that he must admit that the wolf's straightforward course in fighting it out, and then loyally submitting when he was beaten, was the means of giving a great increase of security to the common property. Being asked, too, whether the wolf had not committed "a crime," and was not therefore unpardonable, he said that as there was no court in which a wolf was triable, he did not see that there was any use in talking about his "criminality." Moreover, he said, there was not much use in debating his conduct as a question of morals; because unhappily a large part of the civilized world thought it at least excusable, and nobody denied that, had he succeeded and got off with the sheep, he would have been considered a very fine fellow. This, we imagine, is the story which our correspondent had in mind, though he has reported it somewhat inaccurately.]

As regards the general question of dealing with the South, we hold that anybody who persists in treating and thinking of the persons lately in rebellion "as criminals" is a true sentimentalist; as the object of war against the South was not punishment, in the legal or moral sense of the term. The term punishment, applied to large bodies of men, if it means anything, means vengeance, and vengeance which involves the slaughter of thousands of human beings and the devastations of vast tracts of territory, is an act only worthy of savages. The term, even when used in municipal legislation, does not any longer mean to enlightened persons the infliction of suffering by way of expiation or satisfaction for moral guilt. It denotes simply a means taken by society to protect itself against violence and outrage. Society, as such, knows nothing about moral guilt, because it knows nothing about the state of men's hearts. It only knows that certain precautions are essential to the preservation of life and property, and it takes them. The question of guilt it leaves to the Supreme Ruler. So, also, in the dealings of a nation with a hostile power seeking its destruction. It wages war against it, not in virtue of any divine mission or abstract right, but for the purely utilitarian purpose of self-defence. The North fought against the South, not for the purpose of dealing out retribution, but for the purpose of saving the Union, and under the influence of a well-settled conviction that the Union was so valuable that it was better that 500,000 men should perish than that it should be broken up. To call the war a process of "punishing criminals," in virtue of some inner light as to abstract right and

wrong possessed by the North, is to compare the Northern people to the hosts of Simon de Montfort or the Duke of Alva. The Northerners occupied no such position. They were civilized modern men, who, as Cromwell said, "knew what they were fighting for, and loved what they knew." They were not crusaders or propagandists. In other words, they applied to their undertaking the simple test of *expediency*, the virtue, and indeed the obligation, of which in all such cases has been fully expounded by Burke, and more recently by Austin. Of course, fighting because it is expedient does not prevent a man's believing in the justice of his cause and warming into enthusiasm over it. But it does prevent his setting himself up as the viceregent of God, and undertaking to reveal the secrets of his enemies' hearts and pronounce whether they were honest. There have been many occasions in European warfare in which both parties sang *Te Deums* for the same battle. Let us be thankful if we can avoid such absurdities here.

If this was the Northern position in the war, the proper policy now to be pursued towards Southern men is easily inferred from it. A man who asks himself: "Why did I go down and kill Southerners during the years 1861, '62, '63, '64? Was it because I was sent by God to inflict punishment on the wicked, or because their conduct hurt my feelings?" and who answers: "I killed Southerners because they were trying to break up the Union, the permanence of which I believe to be in the highest degree valuable both to the human race and to the American people, and with which all my own hopes and affections were bound up, and because I believed its preservation essential to the happiness and prosperity of all parts of the Union," has no difficulty in determining what his treatment of Southerners, now that the war is over, should be. He says at once, "I fought to bring the Southerners back into the Union, or, in other words, to force them to be my fellow-citizens. I succeeded; they are my fellow-citizens, and as such I owe them whatever treatment is necessary to secure their attachment to me and to my country, by forgiveness of injuries, oblivion of past grounds of offence, assistance in all times of danger, necessity, and tribulation, and a hearty co-operation in whatever seems likely to promote the safety, honor, and welfare of this nation." Burke has said that we cannot frame an indictment against a whole people. It might be added to this that no man is competent to sit in judgment on a whole people, and all talk of "crime" about the doings of millions of men is therefore irrelevant. When we say even that the course of the North was just, we mean simply that it seemed to us to be expediency in its highest form. We know there are persons among us who profess to be able to tell us what the absolute right of every question is, and who are ready to give their personal guarantee that God Almighty approved of the military operations of the United States against the Confederacy. But we do not argue with these gentlemen. Prophets always have their own way in debate. The question whether under this view we should be willing to commemorate the Southern dead in the Memorial Hall, is one which of course will occur to everybody; but the answer seems to us to be that the question is not one of conflicting duties, but of pure feeling. The Memorial Hall is an expression of reverence and affection. To put up tablets in it, therefore, to persons whom its builders do not reverence or love—i.e., the Southern dead—would be a kind of absurdity difficult to describe, if it were not an act of hypocrisy.—ED. NATION.]

A SOUTHERN VIEW.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In an admirable article in your issue of July 2, on the "Rôle of the Universities in Politics," you say justly: "We at the North owe to the civilized men at the South who are now, no matter what their past faults or delusions may have been, struggling to save a large portion of the Union from descent into heathen darkness and disorder, the utmost help and consideration. We owe them above all a free and generous welcome to a share in whatever means of culture we have at our disposal, and ought to offer it, as far as is consistent with our self-respect, in a shape that will not wound theirs."

You go on to consider the question whether the erection of the great hall at Harvard, "in memory of the graduates of the University who died in the war," would "tend to keep Southern students away from the University," and, in support of your conclusion that it would not, you refer to General Bartlett as having "uttered in a burst of unpremeditated eloquence, at the close of the proceedings" at the dedication of the hall, "the real reason why no Southern man need, and we hope never will, feel hurt by Northern memorials of the valor and constancy of Northern soldiers"—to wit, that "it is not altogether the cause which ennobles fighting; it is the spirit in which men fight"; and that "this test may be applied by each side to all the victims of the late conflict without diminishing by one particle its faith in the justice of its own cause."

These remarks of General Bartlett bring to my mind a conversation I had; at the time the building of the hall was determined on, with a classmate whose sympathies were with the North, as mine were with the South, during the war. It was his wish, he said, that the hall should be, to use your words just cited, Mr. Editor, "in memory of the graduates of the University who died in the war"; those on the Southern side, as well as those on the Northern. "But," said he, "the North is not yet ready for it; but the time will come when it will be ready."

It seems to me, judging from General Bartlett's speech and the *Nation's* article, as well as from a good many straws on the surface, that the time has come or is fast coming. What is to hinder the Northern alumni taking the thing into consideration between now and next commencement, thinking it over in all its bearings, and then coming prepared to unite in a cordial invitation to the friends of those who fell on the Southern side to put up tablets to their memory side by side with the tablets to those who fell on the Northern? I verily believe that such an invitation would be as cordially responded to, and that the tablets would be up before the commencement of '76; and then Northern and Southern alumni might meet on common ground, and rejoice together over a common heritage of glory. And would not this be indeed "a centennial monument worth having"?

I agree with General Bartlett that "the view of the nature of the struggle which is sure to gain ground all over the country as the years roll on, is that it was a fierce and passionate but inevitable attempt to settle at any cost a controversy which could be settled in no other way, and that all who shared in it, victors or vanquished, helped to save the country and establish its government on sure and lasting foundations." I recognize "the finger of God" in the result; not as deciding the right or wrong of either side, but as determining which side it was best for the welfare of humanity should succeed. If ever there was a just cause, it was that of Spartacus and his gladiators, but their success would have been the downfall of Roman civilization, and the shadow on the dial of human progress would in all probability have been set back by it fifteen generations, if not fifteen centuries.

E. J. STEARNS.

DENTON, Md., July 7, 1874.

Notes.

THE works, prose and poetical, of John Hookham Frere are to be issued in a new edition, of three volumes, by A. Denham & Co.—Scribner, Welford & Armstrong will publish shortly 'Bibliotheca Diabolica,' a catalogue of works relating to the Devil, "in two parts, pro and con, and serious and humorous; chronologically arranged; with notes, quotations, and proverbs, and a copious index." This can hardly be called dear at 25 cents.—Dr. Fritzsche's astronomical and hypsometrical observations in Northern China, Mongolia, and Mantchooria in 1869-72 are mapped roughly in No. 50 of the Berlin Geographical Society's *Journal*, and more carefully in the current issue (May 20) of Petermann's *Mittheilungen* (New York: L. W. Schmidt).

—A South Carolina gentleman, writing to us from Fort Motte, speaks of the plan proposed by Mr. R. S. Guernsey (*Nation*, No. 470, p. 6) of "celebrating the centennial anniversary of national independence by inducing each State to publish a roll of its men both rank and file who fought to establish our national Government." Mr. Guernsey's plan meets with our correspondent's warm approval. He says: "Permit an old man who, in the evening of life, bears with him to the grave a national pride which no revolution of political partisanship can destroy, to express his great gratification at this movement. . . . There is want of organization in our unhappy South to move in this matter, but it may be that the paralyzed spirit of our people can be restored again to activity through the activity of other centres." As a means of aiding to bring about this result, our correspondent encloses to us for publication a copy of some memoranda made by a South Carolinian Revolutionary soldier, Mr. Jehu Postell, a note-book of whose indit-

ing is in the possession of his descendants, and, as our correspondent conceives, contains exactly the kind of information which Mr. Guernsey's plan calls for:

"The following were companions and messmates in the Old Second Continental Regiment of South Carolina infantry, while William Moultrie was Colonel, Francis Marion, Lieutenant-Colonel, and Peter Horry, Major—at Sullivan's Island, S. C., June 1776.—(Sg.) JEHU POSTELL.

"*Alfred Hugér*. 2d Lieut. in Capt. Horry's company, 2d regiment S. C. continental regiment—afterwards Captain in same regiment—joined Marion's legion and commissioned Major in 1777. Killed at Stono, near Charleston.

"*William Capers*. 1st Lieutenant in Capt. Horry's Company, 2d regt. S. C. Continental troops, joined Marion and made Captain of the Santee Scouts. Served at Savannah, Fort Moultrie, Eutaw Springs, Rugely Mills, Charleston. As brave a man as ever God let live.

"*George Sinclair Capers*. Private in Horry's Company, 2d S. C. Regt.; joined Marion with his brother, generous, brave, and full of all manner of fun. He could make a royal rum-punch, and as good a swordsman as ever made point or cut.

"*Jehu Sinclair Postell*. Private in Horry's company 2d S. C. Regt.; after regiment disbanded in 1776, Jehu joined Capt. Capers' Dragoons with Marion—being my brother, I might say too much of him if I were to give his manly qualities as a gentleman and a soldier. He was the strongest man in Marion's legion.

"*Daniel Eggleston*. Lieut. in Capt. Horry's company and Cornet, afterwards transferred to Huger's 2d Regt. S. C. troops. When regiment disbanded he joined Colonel Lee, and became Capt. of Cavalry—a fine fellow he was—and *Jehu Postell* who writes this, and has no more to say of himself.

"P.S.—I must not forget the boy *Peter*, whose freedom we give on condition of his faithfulness. He could laugh louder, sleep sounder, and drink more rum than any person I ever saw."

—Mr. T. W. Higginson has been guilty of "journalism" in the last number of the *Woman's Journal*. Journalism is a generic name which includes a great variety of offences. In this particular sense, it consists in citing or referring to something an opponent has said in such manner as to make it mean whatever it happens to be most convenient for your own side of the argument that it should mean. The *Evening Post* was guilty of it when it alleged that we had objected to its making "any mention whatever" of M. Rochefort's letter to the *Herald*, the fact being that we had objected to its "treating his story of the Commune as worthy of credit." The *New York Times* was guilty of it when it said that the *Nation* "was of opinion that to assist a swindler to escape justice was quite right," the fact being that we had expressed an opinion favorable to the course of the Erie directors in compromising a civil suit brought against Gould, for less than the full amount of the damages claimed in the complaint. The offence is one which, in a well-drawn criminal code, would be put in the same category with robbing an orchard or hen-roost and milking other people's cows in the pasture for immediate personal use. That is, it indicates rather recklessness and *insouciance* than badness of heart, and all attempts to repress it should therefore be reformatory rather than punitive in their character. We subjoin, in parallel columns, the *corpus delicti* in Mr. Higginson's case:

[The Nation.]

In short, the position of conservatives is simply this: Woman's place in society, even in the most civilized countries—including her deprivation of certain employments; the greater importance attached to her purity than to man's; the objections to her active and public participation in the work of government; the nature of the marriage contract—is based on physiological considerations, the discussion of which is usually confined to professional journals and learned societies. We would rather not handle them in the newspapers or in the family circle. There are several objections of a grave kind to making them topics of common conversation among the young, and simple, and unlearned. But if you insist upon it, and upon treating our reticence as a sign of acquiescence in the serious changes you propose in our laws and manners, we certainly shall not be restrained by considerations of decency, and give you fair notice that we shall "invade your privacy" in a manner you will not like. We shall not sacrifice society to our squeamishness.

We supposed we had made it plain by punctuation that the foregoing description of "the position of the Conservatives" was put in the mouths of the persons now engaged or likely to be engaged in this physiological discus-

[Mr. Higginson's Rendering.]

The manner in which the *New York Nation* of June 25 treats those young girls who wish for higher education;—using toward them a coarseness of tone as brutal and discourteous as that which the *Nation* itself denounces in General Butler's speeches; and avowing the purpose not to be "restrained by considerations of decency," (p. 408,) in attacking them, should they persist in petitioning for the best collegiate instruction, namely, that at Harvard and Yale;—this is paralleled by many things that appeared in newspapers then held reputable, twenty-five years ago.

sion—namely, such persons as Drs. Clarke, Maudsley, and others. If we have not done so, we presume the fault is ours; but, in any case, the interpretation of Colonel Higginson is a very aggravated case of journalism, particularly as the passage in which it was performed was devoted almost entirely to giving some account of a controversy actually raging, in which we have taken no part whatever, and as the small piece of quotation which he makes gives the rest of his remarks the appearance of being a mere paraphrase of ours. The phrase "invading your privacy" is quoted from Mrs. Howe's preface, in which she complains of Dr. Clarke's book as "an intrusion."

—If there be any marriage statistics in the last Census Report we have been unable to find them, and if they have been omitted it is an omission of some importance, because they would throw some useful light on the question of female education, and on the attempt which some persons are engaged in to reorganize society, on the theory that the body of women who will not or need not marry is so large that our social and political arrangements might safely be adapted to their needs. In default of statistics of our own, those of the last English census just issued are of considerable value, inasmuch as England is a country in which women find it vastly more difficult to get married than they do here. The population of England is 23,500,000 nearly. Of these 10,000,000 are under 20 years of age, and therefore may for political and social purposes be pronounced unmarriageable. Of the rest, 10,000,000 are either married, or widows or widowers, divided about equally between the sexes. The remaining 3,500,000 of unmarried marriageable persons over 20 are also divided equally between the sexes. Out of every 100 men in England over 20, 66 are husbands and 7 widowers, or 73 per cent. have been or are married. Of every 100 women of the same age, 61 are wives and 13 widows, or 74 per cent. have been or are married. In our recent article on the "Replies to Dr. Clarke," we estimated the percentage of women likely to marry at 70 or 80, which was, we now see, a close approach to the exact figure, even in an old country like England, in which marriage is difficult. We do not believe 80 is too high an estimate for the United States, so that what some of our women's-rights friends are really trying to do is to regulate female manners and education for 20 per cent. of the female population. We say *some* only, because many of the proposed reforms in female education would undoubtedly be a most valuable preparation for domestic life—i.e., for the life which four women out of every five are destined to lead.

—It is something like a self-contradictory statement; but the *International Review* for July is as usual ill-edited, while as usual most of its articles are good. The table of contents is as follows: "William Cullen Bryant and his Writings"; "Coal and its Supply"; "Thirteen Years of Freedom in Italy"; "The Catholic Reformation in Switzerland"; "The New Revision of the English Bible"; "The Orthodox Church"; and the "Notices of New Books." This list, it is plain, is overweighted heavily with religious and semi-religious topics, and thus is badly made up for a table of contents of any international review of properly wide scope. From Professor E. B. Andrews's "Coal and its Supply" the general reader may get a notion of the disproportion that exists between the extent of our American coal-fields and those of other countries, the difference being vastly in our favor. This fact is usually looked upon by our citizens with hopefulness, not to say with a disposition to boast, as if we were ourselves somehow responsible for the coal-beds, or at all events for most of the better sorts of our carboniferous deposits. Professor Andrews, however, has found one American writer who has taken a more thoughtful view of the subject. "But," says this writer, a Mr. Macfarlane, "if we take a higher and more thoughtful view of the subject, we will observe the malevolence of that Providence which in its apparent anger has submerged beneath the ocean so much that might have benefited our race, or caused it to be eaten away through countless ages by the action of the waves, leaving only poor fragments to tell us of the much larger portions that have been removed. Hence we cannot doubt but that the earth, in its rocks as well as its soil, was cursed for our sake, and that far back in the geologic ages there was built up, by a Being who saw the end from the beginning, a mutilated planet as a fit habitation for a fallen race." This passage is another reminder of our good luck in escaping from the various beneficent Providences suggested from time to time by the philosophers, and in keeping on with the Providence whose malevolence seems so deplorable to Macfarlane. It is a pity indeed that three-quarters of our mutilated planet is covered with water instead of being rounded off with anthracite and cannel.

—Dr. Ray Palmer contributes to the *International* a biographical essay on Mr. Bryant and comments upon his poetry with zeal; but he has a subject whose main lines are not to be missed, and the essay is better than some of its indications would lead the reader to expect. "Thirteen Years of Freedom in Italy" is by Professor Angelo de Gubernatis, and the gist of it is that tourists who really wish to see the essential nature of the new, free Italy

should give less time to Italian monuments and the picturesqueness of Italian scenery and poverty, and should study with care the life and activity of Milan and of Turin—cities at which the traveller now takes but a glance as he passes eagerly southward to Florence and Rome and the Bay of Naples. It might be wiser; but tourists in these days go abroad neither for the purpose of instructing themselves, as once they did; nor of elevating the condition of the foreigner, as indeed they never did so far as we know; but of resting and amusing themselves. An article seeming more mature and solid than that of Professor de Gubernatis is the next one—"The Catholic Reformation in Switzerland." It is clear in its arrangement of facts and perhaps not the less to be trusted that it is the work of a writer (anonymous) whose sympathies and whose well-settled convictions are on the Protestant side. As illustrating at the same time the writer's clearness and the turn of his sympathies, we give the substance of his answer to a question supposed by him to be put by the reader—namely, Is this reformation a movement, *bona fide*, of Catholics, or is it but a demonstration carried on by old enemies of the Catholic Church, who seize on a small disaffection among the faithful to impose on the public by using the Catholic name? To this question he begins an answer by saying that the nature of the answer will depend altogether on the definition given to the term "Catholic." As every one knows, he says, Catholic polemics have two definitions of that term and two corresponding sets of statistics—one for assault, one for defence. Under the former, they speak of the 300,000,000 of Catholics in the world, of their voting strength, and so forth, and demand a proportionate share of the public moneys and the prison chaplaincies. Under the other, they protest against the unfairness of statistics setting forth Catholic crime and Catholic pauperism, and contradict reports of dissension in the Church by declaring all dissentients to be no Catholics at all or "half Catholics." In this latter view, says our author, if we regard as Catholics only the select, pure, and homogeneous sect, far from overwhelming in point of numbers, with whose members their pastors can find no fault, then the reformation is not a *bona fide* movement of Catholics. But if we use language as it is ordinarily used, the movement is strictly a spontaneous movement among Catholics themselves, and already has accomplished a great deal in the way of freeing the Swiss Catholic from Ultramontanist dictation, and will accomplish more. We do not see in what respect the principle on which the Roman Catholics act in using, as above set forth, two definitions (to call them definitions) differs from the principle on which other religious bodies act in the same and similar cases. But the writer's remarks make it clear in what sense he gives his answer, and his answer with its supporting facts as set down by him in his article is worth attention. "The New Revision of the English Bible" is by Professor Fisher of Yale, and is readable, though it does not pretend to any newness of matter or any deep-going views. It puts plainly with sufficient illustrations the necessity of the Revising Board's not being so conservative in making changes as really to leave the present Authorized Version still in the field. Thus much labor would be lost and a great opportunity lost also. "The Orthodox Church," by the Princess Dora d'Istria, gives some account of the history and present condition of the Greek Church and its relations to Western Catholicism.

—*Brownson's Quarterly Review*, written wholly by its editor, contains nearly two hundred and fifty pages, and the quality of its contents offers no less evidence of the editorial vigor than the quantity. The article which will be of interest to most readers, is the notice of the Marquis de Chamberlain's book entitled 'The Executive Power of the United States,' which is highly praised, though, of course, on some points issue is taken with the author's views. For instance, we agree with the author, says Dr. Brownson, that the abolition of the electoral colleges would clear away a practical absurdity; but we do not agree with him and some of our native politicians that the change would tend to break up the caucus system, weaken the tyranny of party, or give greater freedom of choice to the voter. There would remain the same motive for party organization as now, and as strong a reason for caucus nomination. Indeed, as things are now, under the present system, the electors count for nothing with the voters in a Presidential election; it is not to secure the return of the electors, but of the party candidate for the Presidency, that party machinery is employed as we see it and regret to see it. Pursuing the general subject, Dr. Brownson goes on to say that in times past he, in common with his countrymen, has declaimed against the strict party organization which obtains among us, but that now he knows well that party tyranny is a necessity of popular government. And this because, if the truth must be told, the democratic form of government is the most unnatural form of government under the sun. It is utterly opposed to the truth; the first family, the first school we visit, the first crowd in which we mingle, shows this;—the one or two lead, the great majority follow and do as they are bid. Hence a government democratic in form becomes practicable only when human nature is neutralized by party organization, party

machinery, and party discipline. This is not a very new truth—it has been known that minorities always rule; nor a very fruitful lesson, for what it is desired to know is, how minorities can be made to rule better than they have hitherto; but our author's way of looking at political matters will be so fresh to so many American formula-swallowers, that to read what he writes would be highly medicinal to our political class in general. To go on: he says, in speaking of the "one-man power," or "Caesarism," of which we used to hear a generation ago and are now hearing again, that the clamor about it he regards as both senseless and mischievous. The power of the Executive, already limited by the Senate's right of confirmation, has, within a few years, been still further limited by the tenure-of-office law. What has really happened is, that a Caesaristic power has, by the course of recent events, been lodged in the hands of an irresponsible body of Representatives and Senators, who exercise the whole executive patronage for their own and their party's aggrandizement. We need not, however, speaking by the way, disguise from ourselves the fact that the President's power in this respect is in practice enormous. The worst of it is, responsibility has in a great measure disappeared. To illustrate Dr. Brownson's readiness to speak out his individual opinions, and the danger of his running at any moment from sense to whimsicality, we may quote his peculiar view of the nature of the right of secession: "We maintain," he says, "and have always, except for a brief moment before we had fully investigated the question, that the States had a right to secede if they chose—the same right that a sovereign has to abdicate; but we denied, and deny, that by seceding they became independent States, or territory independent of the United States. By seceding they lost their sovereign rights, which were held only in the Union, and became simply people and territory subject to the Union"—a doctrine of secession as agreeable to the South Carolinian ear as Sherman's guns themselves. Illustrative of this same sort of individualism and positiveness are some of the odd little book-notices, as for instance of 'Dame Dolores,' a book by a writer whose name is not given to the public: "We suppose we ought to know, and probably have known, who is the author or authoress of these charming stories, but if we have known we have forgotten. There is more pride than humility in publishing a book anonymously." There is nothing like having these things settled. There are six articles besides those which we have mentioned, "Count de Montalembert," "Gallicanism and Ultramontanism," and four others, each with its due amount of Brownsonism.

BURTON'S HISTORY OF SCOTLAND.*

WE have more than once taken notice of the new edition of Burton's 'History of Scotland,' of which the closing volumes have now been received. It may fairly be pronounced one of the most important and best-executed historical undertakings of our time. The complete history of any country is, in the rapid accumulation of materials and the stringent demands of criticism at the present day, a task which might well daunt the most courageous. And we can bestow no higher praise upon this book—none, that is, which better expresses its literary rank—than to say that neither England nor America possesses any complete history which can compare with this in merit; nor, in the English language, any modern nation of the European Continent, unless it be France. The author has traversed the seven centuries embraced within the scope of his work with a steady step and a clear eye, and produced a book which is from beginning to end at once readable and worth reading.

It was not to be expected that in so extensive and varied a field all portions should be done equally well; and we should say that, on the whole, the early period is less well done than the later. The author's temper is too cautious and his tone of thought too sceptical to be thoroughly satisfactory in a period which calls for a somewhat higher degree of imagination than he possesses. The results in these early chapters are very apt to be merely negative; the reader finds a thorough examination of the evidence, a clear and impartial statement of arguments on both sides, and a very sagacious consideration of them, and is then dismissed with the remark that the evidence warrants no conclusion. That this proceeds not from a lack of capacity to decide controverted points, but from a defect in historical imagination and an overconscientiousness as to going beyond the record, is abundantly proved from Mr. Burton's masterly treatment of controverted points further on, especially in the case of Mary, Queen of Scots. He has an eminent judicial mind, but it acts most freely in the clear light of distinctly historical times.

This most vexed of the moot questions of history, the guilt or innocence of Queen Mary, receives from Mr. Burton an almost disproportionate

* The History of Scotland, from Agricola's Invasion to the Extinction of the last Jacobite Insurrection. By John Hill Burton, Historiographer-Royal for Scotland. In eight vols. (and Index volume) 12mo. Edinburgh and London: William Blackwood & Sons; New York: Scribner, Welford & Armstrong. 1873.

attention. The entire fourth volume is devoted to the nine years (1560-69) between the death of Francis II. and the adjournment of the Commission of Enquiry held in England after Mary's flight thither. It is a remarkable piece of work. There is no aim at picturesqueness or dramatic effect, in which respect his treatment of it is strongly contrasted with Mr. Froude's (whom, by the way, Mr. Burton always mentions with respect). The result, however, is one which possesses all the most desirable elements of the dramatic and the picturesque. The career of Queen Mary is narrated with the greatest fulness and care, and the events are so grouped as mutually to illustrate each other and to help the reader to place himself at the point of view of a contemporary. The most scrupulous impartiality is observed, so that hardly a clue is given to the judgment which is about to be passed; and it is not until the simple and direct narration, by its own accumulation of evidence, has made her guilt almost self-evident, that the writer allows his own opinion to be seen. Neither does this appear to be the artifice of the advocate, but the logical process of one simply aiming to arrive at the truth. For example, in the account of the murder of Darnley, Mr. Froude, making use of the facts afterwards put in evidence, tells the events as they occurred (or are considered by him to have occurred), making free use of the casket-letters as unimpeachable evidence. Mr. Burton makes no allusion to these (although he does make some use of Crawford's concurrent testimony) until he reaches their discovery in the due course of his narration, constructing his story from independent sources, so that his argument up to this point depends in no way on their validity. This method he justifies by an interesting note (p. 253), which explains and illustrates his judicial method of treatment: "In the supposition that they are genuine, they were a secret between two criminals which did not yet begin to influence others; and it seemed to be the historian's proper duty to deal with what was known to, and consequently influenced, the actors at large on the political stage. From the 20th of June, 1567, however, the ruling power in Scotland took its stand upon the import of these letters; and it is therefore from that day that they properly become a part of public history."

Mr. Burton's style is strong and masculine, occasionally with a slight lack of finish which is not a great defect, and with a racy humor which lights up some of its most tragic chapters. This is nowhere more conspicuous than in the account of the intercourse between Mary and Knox—a juxtaposition which certainly has its comical as well as its serious side. "It occurred to him to put in a word of comfort founded on his domestic experience. Weeping was far from pleasant to him, and he could scarce stand that of his own boys when under paternal flagellation. But on the present occasion, that he should be assailed by tears was more unreasonable, the queen having no just cause of offence, since he had but spoken the truth, as his vocation craved of him. He was thrust for a time into an ante-room among the queen's ladies—a body for whom he had often expressed intense disgust, railing at their 'stinkin' pride' and the 'targetting of their tails and the rest of their vanity,' all calculated to 'provoke God's vengeance not only against those foolish women but against the whole realm.' The grim preacher was probably no more welcome to them than they to him; but he resolved to improve the occasion, and to this accident we owe a sentence of quaint and solemn moralizing which may fairly match with Hamlet's over Yorick's skull" (IV., p. 74). A favorite object of his sarcastic humor is Queen Elizabeth—he would be no Scotchman if he loved her. "The sacredness of the sovereign was to her the most imperious of human creeds. She had counted on it as absolute when she coquetted with her sister's subjects; they might go so far, but there was no risk of their going further. The leaders in Scotland had now committed the most awful crime that it lay within the compass of human wickedness to commit. Blasphemy against the Almighty was merely a rash use of words, doing nothing which penitence might not recall; but here was blasphemy put in practical and irretrievable shape against the representative of the Almighty upon earth" (p. 295). Again: "The other document was a letter of special instruction by Queen Elizabeth to her commissioners. These unhappy men, if they had not known all too well the voice which spoke to them, might well have said, in the voice of Scripture, 'Who is this that darkeneth counsel by words without knowledge?' To abbreviate the meaning of sentences so adjusted as not to have a meaning is impracticable, and it would not aid the narrative to introduce such a document in full. It is more suitable as a study in royal or feminine correspondence than an aid to the reader, who could only be as much perplexed by its contents as were those to whom it was addressed" (p. 430). Better, in this vein, is what he says of Buchanan's instruction of the young king in the principles of government: "Buchanan was then at work upon his 'History'; and as he had some thirty fictitious kings to deal with, he was enabled to adjust the conduct and the fate of each to his own satisfaction. His 'History' became, indeed, what the French call the 'pièces justificatives' of his essay" (Vol. V., p. 139).

No portion of the work approaches the fourth volume in tragic interest, although every succeeding one has its episodes and characters as universally familiar and inexhaustibly fresh as this of Mary, Queen of Scots. Probably no field of history is so crowded with the names and events of romance as that embraced in these closing volumes; and all of these, Montrose, Claverhouse, Argyll, Prince Charlie, the Gowrie Conspiracy, the Murder of Archbishop Sharp, the Massacre of Glencoe, receive worthy treatment. The prevailing character of this later period, however, is serious and earnest. The great religious controversies, and the organizations and contests growing out of them, form the background of later Scotch history; the stern spirit of John Knox continued to inspire his nation. Able and successful as Mr. Burton is in the more stirring portions of his work, it yet seems to us that his favorite field is the great religious and political movements which grew out of the Reformation and out of the antagonistic phases which the reformed religion assumed in the two sister kingdoms.

Of subordinate topics, we will especially mention the manner in which architectural remains are turned to the purposes of history, and we will instance, besides the numerous discussions in the early volumes, the account of the Cathedral of Glasgow, in connection with the Glasgow Assembly (1638), Vol. VI., p. 222, both text and notes. We were inclined to think that historical geography was a weak point with Mr. Burton, and, as it is, he does not make of it nearly so much as we could desire. There is no general description of Scotland or of the relation of its history to its geography, and in particular we miss a clear view of feudal Scotland. There are, however, numerous scattered passages upon these points which, if collected in one, would make a very considerable amount, and these are all characterized by Mr. Burton's clear and vigorous treatment. We will mention particularly the account of the dominions of the Huntlys, Vol. III., p. 59, and Vol. VI., p. 206. The relations of the Isles to Scotland and Norway respectively, and indeed the whole treatment of the early international relations of these northern powers, are among the most striking and satisfactory portions of the work.

One of Mr. Burton's prominent habits of mind is his power of placing himself intellectually in the atmosphere of the events of which he is treating—one of the sources of his eminently fair and sagacious judgment. Thus, of the murder of Rizzio: "Much of the accusation and defence wasted on the characters of that age arises from the supposition that, like a well-principled citizen of the present day, any one hearing of an intended crime was expected to go and inform the police. People in the public world had too much anxiety about themselves to think of others, and only the strongest personal motives would prompt one to interfere with any act of violence. An attempt to thwart a crime by which his cause would profit might have justly exposed a man to the charge of insanity or gross duplicity" (IV., p. 151). Again, of the death of Archbishop Sharp: "A word, however, has yet to be said for those who have not thought fit to denounce this crime in the strongest language available for the purpose. It is common in history to use the term 'assassination' rather than 'murder' on such occasions. The practice is useful, as it separates two acts of different character from each other without conceding to either the palliation that may be conceded to casual slaughter in troublesome times. Private murder for personal revenge or for robbery is a different form of crime from the act by which a public man is put to death as a punishment for his political creed, and as a means of stopping his political career, even although it be done without any form of trial or other judicial procedure" (VII., p. 217).

Mr. Burton discusses somewhat elaborately the great question of the feudal supremacy of England; but the gist of his argument is found in the opening words of the second volume relative to the Treaty of Falaise (1174): "The much-desired infeudation of Scotland was now complete, at least on parchment. In the great homage dispute, on one side of it at least, a perverse pedantry has depended on ceremonies and writs instead of broad historical facts; as if all that a high-spirited people could gain by ages of endurance and contest might be lost by a slip of parchment. But it is odd that these pedantic reasoners should have overlooked how strongly this transaction bears against them. If the Scots people were really under feudal subjection to the Norman kings of England, what need to create that condition by a hard bargain with a prisoner? Or, supposing that the condition had really been established, and the King of Scots was a rebel, then the phraseology of the documents would undoubtedly have shown as much, and would have renewed or confirmed the past. What the conditions of the Treaty of Falaise do, however, is to create the new condition of vassal and superior from their date. They explain the opportunity and certify the use it is put to." A strong argument, it must be admitted, and clinched by Richard Cœur de Lion's revocation of the treaty in 1189.

A few slight errors may be pointed out. In Vol. II., p. 321, Louis X. of France, instead of Charles IV., is said to have died in 1329. On p. 344, Ro-

bert II. is spoken of as nephew, instead of grandson, of Robert Bruce. Vol. III., p. 8, King Christian I. is spoken of as if he were primarily King of Norway instead of Denmark. Vol. IV., p. 5, the Emperor Ferdinand is called Frederick. The book is handsomely and correctly printed, and possesses the great treasure of an index volume. Maps and plans would add much to its value, and so would a few tables of genealogy and of contemporary sovereigns.

RECENT WORKS ON MENTAL HYGIENE.*

WE group these three books together because the two latter, though they cover a wider ground, are yet in reality more important manuals of mental hygiene than the American volume which bears this exclusive title. This latter does not deal, like those of Ray, Feuchtersleben, etc., with didactic maxims, but is a concatenation of quotations, statistics, and propositions regarding the effect of different circumstances on the mental life, from which the reader is avowedly left to draw his own practical conclusions. Though it sadly lacks unity and smoothness, the original portions are well written, and the quotations make it entertaining. Many persons will probably find it useful, though we can by no means consider it in the light of a valuable contribution to knowledge. The wisdom of some of the author's ideas is more than questionable. Alluding to the fact that steam, electricity, and mechanical inventions "are superseding the necessity for the stalwart frames and heavy sinews which were in such prime demand a few years since," he says: "When the brain and nervous energies, backed by creations of mechanical art and skill, assume the countless tasks so long performed by human hands propelled by hardy muscles under the impetus of harder wills, we may be pardoned for questioning the wisdom of continuing to maintain that degree of muscular development which obtained among our forefathers, as a necessity of a civilization which no longer exists." This surely is singular language for a physician to use. We believe, on the contrary, that the indirect benefits we shall get from "keeping up our muscle" (even supposing our author to be right in his idea that the new civilization will do away with any very urgent economic necessity for it), will be quite as important as its immediate mechanical uses have ever been; and that, if our race ever gets to disregard muscular strength as an element of human perfection, it will be far gone on the path of degeneration. A well-developed muscular system means something more than the ability to raise a given weight. It is apt to be correlated with calm nerves and strong digestion, with joyousness and courage of every sort, with amiability and all manner of sound affections and sensibilities. Society owes an immense debt to its nervous temperaments, its Shelleys, its J. S. Mills, and others. But who would not shrink from having the *type* grow strenuous and hectic like these? The old vascular and muscular breadth is better for the stock of human nature, and we trust that here in America we shall never lose the wholesome sense of this, but by the increasing interest taken in athletic sports and the honor paid to their heroes keep up in some degree that admiration for bodily perfection which maintains itself perforce in military and aristocratic societies, but which in an age of business and mere brain competition may easily decline without the support of a special æsthetic cultivation. Darwinism has begun to awaken people's consciences about the responsibilities of breeding in the human race; and we fancy that, before long, nervous brides and bridegrooms without jaws or shoulders will be rarer to meet than they unhappily are now.

In the admirable practical chapter at the end of Dr. Maudsley's book he says that the hereditary element holds the first place in the production of insanity, and that the neurotic or overnervous type, which is often the type of genius too, may be the first step in the downward career. He adds that the tendency often is to an intensification of this type by marriage:

"In the first place, those who have it are prone, by a sort of elective affinity, to seek in marriage persons who have similar mental qualities, and with whom therefore they have a sympathy of tastes, feelings, and thoughts. Emotional susceptibilities, wild flights of imagination, and idealistic aspirations excite their admiration and sympathy; while common sense, subordination of feeling, sober reflection, and a calm and regulated activity are repugnant to their nature. In the second place, by a similar natural affinity, they select those external circumstances of life . . . which are grateful to them, and so intensify their peculiar tendencies until these perhaps undergo a pathological development. In the third place, they apply to their children the same mismanagement which they apply to themselves. These are twice cursed: cursed in the inheritance of a bad descent, and in the training which they get," and too often they become finished lunatics.

* An Essay on the Principles of Mental Hygiene. By D. A. Gorton, M.D. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1873.

The International Scientific Series. Responsibility in Mental Disease. By Henry Maudsley, M.D. New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1874.

Principles of Mental Physiology, with their Applications to the Training and Discipline of the Mind and the Study of its Morbid Conditions. By Wm. B. Carpenter, M.D., LL.D. New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1874.

To those who think that no evil seems worthy of that name when compared with the evil of insanity we cordially recommend Dr. Maudsley's excellent little volume. In it they will learn that the evil is not wholly beyond human power to avert, and that right breeding is one of the most important means to this effect; although he is less hopeful than we are that the quality of "sexual selection" may be gradually improved by enlightening public opinion on the subject. It is in the minority of cases that marriages are due to the blind and frenzied extremity of love. Once expose certain kinds of matches to public reprobation, and the parties will attract each other less. The current ideal of character for each sex is, like other æsthetic ideals, always in part a matter of fashion, and, like our beliefs, is largely obedient to the reflective consciousness we entertain of the excellence of cultivating them. We encourage a taste or passion or intellectual tendency by justifying and adopting it. We shake its power by doubting its dignity. And so if reflection, public fashion, the newspapers, and novels all begin to decry sensibility and refinement when they form the all-in-all of character, and to reinstate manliness and bodily soundness on the one hand, and simple loveliness on the other, into the rank they held in the fiction of old, why, it will be strange if some individuals do not fall in love accordingly, and the succeeding generations acquire a tinge more of burlesque than would otherwise be the case.

Dr. Carpenter's book deals more with the individual than the race. It is a treatise of descriptive psychology, written with that polish of style and copiousness of illustration which have so distinguished the other writings of the author. Holding firmly the doctrine that all mental action is correlated with brain function, and equally firmly the doctrine that in volition we have a change of thought not fully predetermined by its cerebral antecedent, his main thesis is to work out the interaction of these two principles, and to show the way in which modes of action originally due to separate volitional impulse grow, by virtue of the great law of habit, automatic, and matters, so to speak, of second nature. So that a persistent will really moulds the organism to its purposes, and, in so far as the tendency to habits thus organized may be inherited, has a creative dignity.

"We have thus a definite physiological *rationale* for that 'government of the thoughts' which every moralist and religionist teaches to be the basis of the formation of right character, and therefore of right conduct. And the writer cannot but believe that there are many upon whom the essentiality of intellectual and moral discipline will be likely to impress itself with greater force when they are enabled thus to trace out its physical action, and to see that in the mental as in the bodily organism the present is the *resultant of the past*; so that whatever we learn, think, or do in our youth will come again in after-life, either as a nemesis or as an angel's visit."

We think that this good purpose has been carried out with admirable thoroughness and skill. Clergymen and teachers will find the book a well of valuable suggestions, and for youthful students it will prove a very fascinating introduction to mental science; the unusual breadth of its scope and abundance of anecdotes, and the full account of morbid mental phenomena, helping to atone for a certain want of analytic depth. We may say, too, now that "spiritualism" is again exciting public attention, that Dr. Carpenter has in this book taken the pains to prepare an elaborate and careful refutation of what he regards as its follies and delusions.

CHERBULIEZ'S SPAIN.*

IN four essays, originally published in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, M. Cherbuliez discusses the Spanish Character and the Constitutional Monarchy; King Amadeus and the Democratic Monarchy; the Commencement of the Spanish Republic; the Crisis of the Spanish Republic; the Constitutional and Alphonist Parties; and in an Appendix, which bears date of the 8th of February of the present year, the long series of insurrections and pronunciamientos since the revolution of 1868 is continued to its latest chapter—the *coup d'état* of the 3d of January, 1874.

M. Cherbuliez approaches his subject with the keen sympathy of a Frenchman for a country as unfortunate as his own, and yet containing, "in spite of Carlists and pétroleurs, of bloodshed and unpaid coupons, more real happiness than Prussia, the most governed of all countries, or than industrious and opulent England." In explanation of so peculiar a phenomenon, he draws on his intimate acquaintance with Spanish life and politics in all their varied aspects, as well as on the resources of his cultivated and brilliant style. M. Cherbuliez not only explains and defends but evidently shares the enviable hopefulness of the Spaniards under their trials, and professes his faith that "whatever may be the future destinies of Spain, her government can only be a free one." Curiously enough, the ardent admirer of Castelar, "whose

* L'Espagne Politique, 1868-1873. Par Victor Cherbuliez. Paris: Hachette & Cie.; New York: F. W. Christern.

heart and talents grow with his responsibilities," accords to Isabella II., in spite of her faults and temptations, the glory of linking her name to a decisive epoch in the history of Spain. . . . During her reign the very genius of the nation was transformed. . . . Spain, throwing off the yoke of her traditions, became the home of free discussion, and applied to the study of her past and present that critical spirit which distinguishes modern peoples." And yet the downfall of Isabella was the consequence of a purely military rising, in which monarchists of all shades joined hands, and the direct fruits of which were reaped by Marshal Serrano and General Prim. When, on the 18th of June, 1869, the Cortes proclaimed the former Regent of the kingdom and the latter President of the Ministry, "the Republicans could only complain, protest, and wait."

The conspicuous part played by Prim during the time when Spain vainly offered to the princes of Europe her vacant throne, is depicted with great force and vividness, and the pages devoted to the intrigues which led to the ephemeral reign of Amadeus form, perhaps, the most interesting portion of M. Cherbuliez's book. The example of Amadeus, to whose many good qualities ample justice is done, "and who had only one unpardonable fault—that of being impossible"—proves "that the election of a sovereign by an assembly which seeks to escape at any price the dangers of a republic is sometimes the most hazardous of ventures." And yet that unfortunate reign, the first day of which witnessed the assassination of Prim, the author of its existence, was terminated, not by the unanimous decision of a free people, but by the intrigues of a Republican faction culminating in the famous Hidalgo affair.

"The Spanish Republic was born under distressing circumstances. Everything appeared to be against it; the fairies who attended its birth seemed to have laid a curse on its cradle, . . . and all their predictions were fulfilled. The poor daughter has seen two fathers claiming her as their offspring, and she nearly fell a victim to their quarrels. She has not wanted inveterate enemies, nor—what is worse—vexatious friends, and, with the exception of a little republic, all the countries of Europe have refused to admit her into their society. And on the strength of these auspices people fond of prophesying have predicted that twenty days would be the limit of her existence. She exists nevertheless, whatever the future may have in store for her, and her constitution, which has withstood such cruel attacks, seems to have gained strength in the strife. If she gains her cause, she will owe thanks to herself only, and she may then boast that her desire to live has accomplished all, and that neither fortune nor men have lent her aid."

In the same spirit of subdued optimism M. Cherbuliez predicts the final triumph of liberal ideas in Spain, even while tracing her struggles with Carlists and Intransigentes and the vain efforts of the Republican leaders to give stability to her institutions.

In the last pages of this attractive volume, which were written after the *coup d'état* of General Pavia, and added in the form of an appendix, M. Cherbuliez proposes for Spain the Presidency for a long term, like MacMahon's, as perhaps the best temporary expedient. But with the fall of Castelar his hopefulness seems to have given way, and he impressively and almost mournfully concludes:

"However excusable or useful may have been the abrupt issue brought about by General Pavia, it has for ever destroyed the illusions of those who imagined that the character of Spain had been modified, and that the era of military insurrections had passed away. It is now evident that nothing has changed in the Peninsula—that there is only one pronunciamiento more. It has been the misfortune of Spain for the past fifty years to have allowed her army to become the universal tool of politics; but it has been her good fortune, as well as her privilege, that the soldiers who have ruled her destinies have not practised the politics of the barracks (*ne font pas de la politique de caserne*). The Spanish people have lived, and will for a long time continue to live, under a régime of Pretorians who have parliamentary spirit, enjoy free discussion, and allow it to take its share in the government of human affairs. It is to be hoped that these Pretorians will never renounce their liberalism. May they establish in Spain a government that shall reconcile liberty and security, allow her to restore her finances, to develop her industries, to work and to think—in short, to emerge from the precarious state in which a nation, unfit for any enterprise, is compelled to devote all its energies to a humble and painful struggle for existence!"

THE NORTH AMERICAN REVIEW FOR JULY.

THE article entitled the "Hanlin Yuan," with which the *North American* opens, is an account of a learned body among the Chinese which in its general character resembles the French Institute. The differences are important; but, speaking compendiously, the two bodies are alike in being composed of selected men of learning, who work under the encouragement of state honors and patronage. The first few pages of the article are confusing, the author apparently not being a very lucid writer at the best nor on any occasion, and apparently on this occasion not having put himself into the place of the Western reader to a sufficient extent to know that to the Western ear the terms Ming, for instance, and Mingwang, and Kienlung, and Tsing are not full of meaning, chronological or otherwise. But of the nature and duties

of the Hanlin Yuan a definite notion may be got from what he tells us, and he promises to tell more in a future article, which may possibly have the effect of making this one clearer. The society was founded in the seventh century by Kaotsu, a monarch who for a score of years afterwards was embroiled in civil war. His son, Shemin, by-and-by coming into undisputed possession of the throne, and recollecting the poets and philosophers whom he had read by the camp-fire, at once addressed himself to the promotion of learning, but without confining himself to the beaten paths of tradition. He not only issued his decree, as his predecessors had done, summoning from their retreats able men and distinguished scholars and commanding their attendance at court, but he installed them in his palace and organized them into a body which he regularly and frequently consulted. This council he called the Wen-bio-Kuan, and it was the germ of the Hanlin Yuan, or Forest of Pencils. This name the society acquired because of Shemin's resolution to form a library which should surpass in magnificence anything that had yet been seen. To effect this result, transcription on a great scale was necessary, and the king accordingly ordered a fresh levy of scholars, who should be elegant scribes as well as able men, and who should use a perfect forest of pencils. The name given these transcribers eventually came to be given to the whole membership of the academy, and this though the peculiar occupation of the scribes themselves almost immediately passed away. For not very long after the establishment of the institution the art of printing was discovered, or at least far more widely applied than ever before, and the art of the copyist was superseded. The scribes, relieved from the drudgery of copying, were at liberty to turn their attention to composition, "and in China in the eighth century, as in Europe in the fifteenth, the art of printing imparted a powerful stimulus to the intellectual activity of the age." So far as Mr. Martin's chronological backing and filling makes it possible to know what he is driving at, we should say that it was this period which saw the beginning of that study of "style" which has enabled the most flowery Chinese men of letters so far to excel the outside barbarian, and so vastly to improve upon the writings of their ancestors, who, as the native critics allow, were more studious of matter than of manner and minded too little about "art for art's sake."

From that day to this, now twelve centuries, the Hanlin Yuan has been maintained in honor and its constitution has undergone no marked change. Mr. Martin gives a somewhat paraphrastic translation of the constitution, but still finds it necessary to make full marginal explanations, to which we refer the interested reader. He also explains in detail the character of an academician's scientific attainments. These are of a quality to afford proof sufficient that it is not by his acquirements in science that it would be fair to try him: comets and eclipses are to him portents of calamity; the stars are characters in the book of fate; the earth is so far from being globular that in fact on the contrary it is flat and in shape it is square, the heavens being round; it is however the centre of the universe, just as China is the centre of the habitable earth, and for this conviction he can not only plead his own books, but quote the teaching of those astronomical Jesuit fathers who, three hundred years after the death of Copernicus, continued to instruct his ancestors in the system of Ptolemy. Zoology he knows to the extent of being aware that when a tiger plunges into the sea he becomes a shark, while sparrows using the same means are transformed into oysters—that is to say, he has for the second of these metamorphoses the authority of the canonical books, and for the first he has the warrant of a general belief which it is little worth while to question. Arithmetic is an affair of shopkeepers, and mechanics he disdains because of its relations to handicrafts and machinery. Of general physics he has an ill-defined theory, but of the five elements upon which this theory is based he can give a luminous exposition—namely, that it is the nature of fire to ascend; the nature of water to run down hill; the nature of metals to be pliable and subject to change; the nature of wood to be either crooked or straight; and the nature of earth to serve the purposes of agriculture. These propositions are the bed-rock of human knowledge, and such they are more clearly seen to be as one examines this frame of things and observes the correspondences which run throughout it all. There are five elements, and are there not five fingers on the human hand? the elements are five, and so are the musical tones, the great mountain ranges of the world, the senses, the planets, and the colors—a cosmos to please Humboldt himself, to say nothing of Swedenborg or a mystical interpreter of Scripture. This system is not only beautiful and beautifully simple, but it is a practical system, fitted to all the needs of human life. Thus, is the academician ill of a fever, which he contracted on shipboard or in a wooden house? As he knows at once, or as his physician tells him, wood produces fire, and what is wanted to restore the balance of the patient is earth—i.e., life on shore or exercise on the ground in the open air. And yet, very properly observes Mr. Martin, it would be a great error to judge of the intel-

lectual power of this person by the correctness of his knowledge of such things as go to make up a modern education in the West. In such knowledge he is a child, but in mental force he may at the same time be a giant. Certain readers, wishing to emphasize this remark to their imaginations, might recall the impression made upon them by seeing in the flesh or in photography a man like the late Mr. Burlingame surrounded by educated Chinese, with their well-bred, well-trained air; or one of our White House assemblages surrounding the Japanese ambassadors recently in this country.

The second article in the *Review* ("The Platform of the New Party") is by Mr. Brooks Adams. Its facts and reasonings are sound rather than new. They have in fact been gone over very often within the last few years, but it may probably be found useful to have them all gathered as here within a moderate compass. The writer's views are not rosy; rather, he judiciously but firmly excludes rosiness of view. After following down the main lines of our political history from the days of Hamilton and Jefferson to these present days, he sums up by saying that, General Grant having let slip his great opportunity of restraining the usurpations of the legislative body, the dominant party is now fairly a corrupt consolidation, centralization party, which has definitely acquired the habit of using the central Government as its chief support in all State politics: "Custom, each day deeper rooted, has developed an unwritten law stronger than any statute or bill of rights; and the law which has been declared is that the will of the majority shall be supreme, the Constitution to the contrary notwithstanding." In proof of this proposition, the cases of Louisiana and Massachusetts are cited, and we have over again the familiar story of the "capture" of the one State and the attempted capture of the other by politicians, behind whom was all the power and influence—without which these politicians could have done nothing—of the central Government. It is no pleasanter a story than ever, and the lesson taught by it needs to be insisted upon; but too absolute and naked insistence upon it leaves it with less effect on the Massachusetts freeman than it should have, and in so far forth prevents his paying proper attention to his brethren down beside the Mississippi. As for the platform of the new party, what must be proclaimed in it is hostility to demagogues, for the activity of demagogues is really the complaint of which we are likely to die, and to die at once unless we can choose a strong President who will curb the Senate, confine Congress to its proper functions, and who will be able to conceive and to execute a broad constitutional policy—one who above all else will do battle for the courts. The necessity of electing a President of this description is to be made the first plank in the platform; the second, is to be the reform of the civil service so as to abolish rotation in office, make the tenure a good-behavior tenure, and forbid placemen from meddling with politics; the third thing is "to free minorities from their thralldom." Unless these things be done, and unless the press and the people rise to the level of the emergency, "the tale is well-nigh told. . . . A little longer, and it will be too late." As we have said, our writer does not take a sanguine view of our affairs; on the contrary, *venienti occurrit morbo*; whereas we may be permitted to hope that whoever will go slower may escape with life.

"Darwinism and Language," by Professor W. D. Whitney, is concerned with one of the subsidiary questions which surround the main evolutionary controversy carried on by the biologists. This subsidiary question is as regards the bearing of language on the controversy. So many wonderful things, says Professor Whitney, have been brought to light by the aid of language during the past fifty years in reference to the prehistoric history (so to call it) of the human race, that it cannot but have occurred to many to ask whether linguistic science may not also have a competent judgment to pronounce as regards at least the last asserted step in the infinite series of transmutations—namely, the development of man out of a lower, a simoid animal. And it so happens that in the opinion of two linguistic scholars of eminence, both of them Germans, linguistic science has this competent judgment to pronounce. One of the two is Professor August Schleicher of Jena, the other Professor Max Müller of Oxford. But, unfortunately for the general public, these two eminent professors have reached two conclusions which are diametrically opposed each to the other. Schleicher is sure that Darwinism is true and that the invincible proof of its truth may be found in evidence furnished by language. Müller, on the other hand, relies upon language to show that Darwinism is not and cannot be true. Professor Whitney, for his part, with that coolness and reasonableness possessed by him in a degree which we may be pardoned for saying is rare among workers in language, thinks that we may all for some time yet fairly wait before making up our minds until the biologists have brought their warfare more nearly to an end, and till victory has more certainly declared herself on a particular side. He proceeds to show that at all events

we need not feel debarred from doing this because of any arguments brought forward by Professors Schleicher and Müller. He takes up their theories one after the other, dealing thus with Schleicher: Schleicher's argument has made the substance of several pamphlets; but, says Professor Whitney, it lies in a nutshell. It is as follows: Languages are living organisms, with their own laws of development, and are not dependent on the beings by whom they are used. Now, since it is beyond question that languages develop and become transmuted; since a single-stock language ramifies into a variety of tongues exhibiting differences as marked as those which distinguish the genera and species of animals and plants, why, it cannot be denied that living organisms do vary, and vary as rapidly and widely as the most ardent Darwinist could desire. And if organic beings of one class, then of course those of others. *Quod erat, etc.* Unluckily, the answer to this argument lies in a still smaller nutshell than the one which contains the argument itself. Languages are organisms, says Schleicher; but languages are not organisms except by a figure of speech, and a moment's attention to this fact would have saved the professor all his labor. With Professor Müller—a writer who, by the tone of his writings and their matter also, often inevitably calls it to the mind of his observers that he is a German professor in *partibus*—Professor Whitney deals with equal effect but necessarily at greater length. He remarks, on beginning, that "it is never entirely easy to reduce to a skeleton of logical sequence and statement a discussion as carried on by Müller, because he is careless of logical sequence and connection, preferring to pour himself out, as it were, over his subject in a gush of genial assertion and interesting illustration." The reader will find this essay worth studying, as much for its method of handling as for what is said.

The other principal literary matter of the *Review* is the essay by Mr. T. S. Perry on Julian Schmidt's critical history of French literature since 1774. Schmidt's standard, and his way of applying it, the essay illustrates by giving us judicious extracts, and by comments which also seem to us judicious and sound. Mr. Perry is, on the whole, inclined to agree with Schmidt that the French tact of style is purchased at the expense of more important matters; is too much sought for and too much admired by such foreigners as profess admiration for it. But, he adds, Mr. Schmidt might have indicated its merits more clearly. The fact seems to be that Mr. Schmidt is morally angry with it, and does not well see why a good style should be, nor indeed how a style truly good can be, dissociated from excellence of matter. Probably it will always be inevitable that the Teutonic critic, when he gets at work on authors of the magnitude of the Victor Hugos and the Châteaubriands and Lamartines, shall think of them not so much as writers with a style, but as men who stand for certain thoughts, feelings, and faiths, by the righteousness and truth of which, and not by deftness or beauty of verbiage and method, they must stand or fall. This sort of incapacity of his, if that is the name to give it, after all only points once more to the old quarrel between that temperament and cast of mind which longs for the origin and meaning of things and the sources of life and that other turn of mind which delights in the beauty of existence. This seems to be, in a way, a true distinction between the genius of the two races; but the intensely practical side of the character of the Teutonic race in its various families frequently blinds us to the lofty side of its character.

We need not say more of the article by Mr. Charles Francis Adams, jr., than that after a dozen introductory pages it displays to the reader, with a very brief running comment, a collection of gems from the speeches of the inflationists in House and Senate during the session just closed. It is almost incredible the figure made by the speakers on the majority side—Bogy, Kelley, Cameron, Boutwell, Merriam of New York, Ferry of Michigan, Butler of Massachusetts, Gordon of Georgia, Holman and Bright of Indiana, Sprague of Rhode Island, Logan, Oglesby, Morton, Bundy of Ohio, and a score or two of others. However, the reader's respect for the honesty of most of the speakers will be increased, so obviously are they as innocent as field-hands of the first idea of the subject on which they are talking. Not so in every case, however. Mr. Morton is shown here as having been repeatedly driven to the wall by the use of extracts from old speeches of his which were all that could be desired. When driven there, his stock reply seems to have been that he knew now where it was that his opponents got their arguments; or that it was only dead men who did not change their opinions. He has evidently played an entirely unprincipled part, with an eye single towards his own personal aggrandizement, and much good he will probably find that he has done himself.

The book-notices are largely reviews of historical works, but all are very good, and some of remarkable excellence.

Geschichte der deutschen Kaiserzeit. Von Wilhelm v. Giesebrecht. Vierter Band. Stauffer und Welfen. Erste Abtheilung. (Braunschweig:

C. A. Schwetschke und Sohn. New York: L. W. Schmidt.)—No historical publication of the past year is of more intrinsic value and importance than the continuation of Von Giesebrecht's great history of the Imperial period of Germany—a period which is explained to extend from the foundation of the German monarchy by the rulers of the Saxon house to the death of Frederick II. in 1250, after which the title of emperor was practically suspended for nearly a century. It was in the hope and expectation of a new and more glorious career for united Germany than that which came to so disastrous a close in the Great Interregnum, that the historian began his work twenty years ago. Now, in the full enjoyment of a union and glory of his native country which he can hardly have dared hope to live to behold, he enters upon the most varied and romantic, and, at the same time, the saddest portion of his task. The present instalment covers in general the interval between the Franconian and Swabian lines of emperors—the reign of Lothair II. with the early years of Conrad III. This is a period of less exciting interest than either that of Henry IV., which came before, or of Frederic Barbarossa, which came after; and yet it is not without its marked character and special importance as the period in which were shaped the great interests and rivalries which racked Germany with internal convulsions for more than a hundred years. The great contest of Stauffer and Welf was foreshadowed even earlier than this time; it received its decisive settlement—so far as the two houses were themselves concerned—in the downfall of Henry the Lion, 1180, pronounced by Sohn a decisive event in the constitutional history of Germany. But the family rivalry still lived on in Philip of Swabia and Otto IV., in Alfonso of Castile and William of Holland; and the family names lived on long after in the party-cries of Ghibelin and Guelf.

One famous stage of this great contest is narrated in these pages—that of Henry the Proud, the most powerful prince who aspired to the Imperial throne between Charles the Great and Charles V., who boasted, hardly with an exaggeration, that his personal dominions extended from the Baltic to the Tyrrhenian Sea. With this enormous dynastic power and his unquestioned abilities and unbounded ambition, it seems that, if he had gained the royalty besides, he might have knit together again the loosened bonds of the empire, and resisted the disintegrating tendencies which were hurrying it to its ruin. Even without this, it was only his untimely death, at the age of thirty-five, that secured the succession of Conrad, and made the third great German dynasty to be Hohenstaufen rather than Welf. It is of the siege of Weinberg, in 1140, in this contest (after the death of Henry), that two romantic stories are told. The one is that the women of the town being permitted, on its surrender, to carry away each some one precious possession, all appeared at the gates with husbands, sons, and fathers upon their backs; the authenticity of this the historian leaves undecided, as not improbable, but still not sufficiently vouched. The other, that the war-cries of *Waibling* and *Welf* were first heard on this occasion, he rejects.

The Emperor Lothair is the hero of this volume, and he is evidently a favorite character with the historian, who relates with enthusiasm his military exploits and sagacious statesmanship, even if he somewhat exaggerates the latter. It is customary to look upon Lothair as an ally of the church, and his reign as a period of reaction between the two great contests of popes and emperors. Herr von Giesebrecht shows that this was not the case. There was a lull in the great struggle, and Lothair cannot be fully identified with either party. It is true he was elected by the influence of the church, and was the main support of Innocent II. in the Papal schism; but this was simply a transaction between two parties in the church, not depending upon relations towards the church. It cannot be denied, however, that Lothair did not make the most of this opportunity of strengthening the Imperial power. On the other hand, it is shown that Conrad, from the weakness of his position and the doubtfulness of his election, was far more disposed to buy the support of the church by a submissive demeanor. This is no more than might be expected from the nature of things, and from our knowledge of the remarkable vacillations in the policy of the church two generations later—in the contests between the Welf Otto IV. and the Stauffer Philip and Frederic II. The Stauffer as a family (except the free-thinking Frederic II.) were no more anti-church in sentiment than the Welf; but whichever occupied the throne was by the force of circumstances brought into hostile relations with the Papacy, which aimed to use the rival house as its tool.

Herr von Giesebrecht's qualities as an historian are of the highest order. He possesses in full measure the characteristic German erudition, but without a touch of what is sometimes regarded as the equally characteristic German dullness. The narrative is marked by vigor, animation, and a peculiarly vivid individualization of the characters introduced, while the comments upon events are equally calm, impartial, and sagacious. Perhaps the reader who is not familiar with the wealth of materials in the shape of epistolary correspondence and other documents of this nature, is most struck with the distinctness with which the men and women of this far-distant

epoch are brought before him as living persons, not the mere counters of chroniclers or of historical speculation. King Lothair himself, his son-in-law, Henry the Proud, the two brothers, Conrad and Frederic of Hohenstaufen, Pope Innocent II., King Roger of Sicily, St. Bernard, and a host of less prominent characters, are delineated with as much reality as if they were now living.

The notes and authorities are, according to the practice of the author, separated from the text, and will be given at the end of the next "Abtheilung," which may be expected shortly.

RECENT GOVERNMENT PUBLICATIONS.

United States Commission of Fish and Fisheries. Part I. Report on the Condition of the Sea Fisheries of the South Coast of New England in 1871 and 1872. By Spencer F. Baird, Commissioner. With Supplementary Papers. Washington: Government Printing Office. 1873. Pp. iv.-852, with 40 plates and one map.

In view of an alleged decrease of the food-fishes on the coast and in the lakes of the United States, and of the importance of knowing what steps should be taken to remedy the evil if the facts prove to be as stated, Congress, in the winter of 1871, passed a law providing for the appointment by the President of a commissioner, to serve without salary, whose duty it should be to take up the subject and report upon it in due season. Professor Baird, Assistant Secretary of the Smithsonian Institution, was chosen for this service, and entered upon the work in the summer of 1871, selecting Wood's Hole, Mass., a point between Buzzard's Bay and Vineyard Sound, as the centre of operations, in consequence of the assertion that the greatest decrease was to be found in Buzzard's Bay, Vineyard Sound, and Narragansett Bay. With a corps of competent assistants and the necessary apparatus and equipment, furnished by a Congressional appropriation, and by the assistance of the Secretaries of the Navy and the Treasury, the labor was carried on; and we have the result in a volume the title of which we have given above.

According to this Report, the facts of the alleged decrease were substantiated, and measures were suggested for remedying it. It was found that the most important fishes on the coast come in to the shores from the deep sea in the spring for the purpose of spawning, and that if this function be allowed to go on undisturbed there would probably be no decrease. The principal measure of protection recommended was the establishment of a close time of one or two days in each week during the spawning season, if not an absolute prohibition of capture during the critical two or three weeks. The researches of the commission involved a careful enquiry into the general character of the ocean, its temperature, currents, the sea-bed, the distribution of animal life on the bottom and throughout the water, and all other questions connected with the physical and natural history of the deep seas and their inhabitants. With the assistance of eminent specialists, and particularly of Prof. A. E. Verrill of New Haven, these points were carefully considered and very large collections made. Of these, we are informed that full series have been preserved for the National Museum at Washington, and that the duplicates have been or will be made up into sets for distribution to various scientific institutions throughout the country.

In addition to the Report of the Commissioner, we have in the present volume a large body of testimony taken in reference to the general subject of the fisheries; arguments on both sides as to the question of protection or non-protection; citations of European authorities on the same general subject; notices in regard to the abundance of fish in former times on the New England coast; statistics relating to the fisheries on the south shore of New England; the natural history of some of the more important food-fishes on the coast, such as the scup and the blue-fish; descriptions and figures of the apparatus used in the capture of fishes on the sea-coast and lakes of the United States; a list of the patents granted in the United States, up to 1872, in reference to the capture and utilization of fish; a report on the invertebrate animals of Vineyard Sound, by Prof. Verrill; a list of the sea-weeds of the south coast of New England, by Dr. Farlow; a catalogue of the fishes of the east coast of North America, by Prof. Gill; a list of the fishes collected at Wood's Hole; and other articles. The most important among the titles just enumerated is the paper by Prof. Verrill, which alone occupies nearly 500 pages of the volume. The list of fishes by Prof. Gill includes all the species of the east coast of North America, with both their scientific and common names, and an indication of their geographical distribution. The illustrations consist of the many devices for the capture of fish, such as pounds, traps, nets, etc., and 287 figures of marine invertebrates, most of them from original drawings. There is also a large map of the region explored, upon which are plotted the positions of the fish pounds and traps, the lines traversed by the dredges and trawls, the temperatures at the surface and bottom of the water, and many other interesting facts.

Forty-third Congress; First Session; House of Representatives; Miscellaneous Document No. 235; Appropriation for Preservation of Food Fishes; Letter of the United States Commissioner of Fish and Fisheries, asking a Deficiency Appropriation for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1874. April 1, 1874, referred to the Committee on Appropriations, and ordered to be printed.

In this pamphlet of eight pages the United States Commissioner gives an account of the work accomplished by him in introducing young shad and salmon into the rivers and lakes of the United States in 1873; the number of the former, according to his account, amounting to over a million and a half, and of the latter to about a million three hundred thousand. The Commissioner appears sanguine of ultimate success in the measures he has undertaken, and thinks that, with a moderate expense, the numbers of the valuable food-fishes referred to can be very greatly increased in the United States, not only multiplying their numbers in the waters which they have hitherto inhabited, but making them abundant in streams where they have never before been known.

Topographical Atlas, projected to illustrate Explorations and Survey West of the One Hundredth Meridian, and prosecuted in accordance with the Act of Congress under the direction of Hon. W. W. Belknap, Secretary of War, by the Corps of Engineers; projected by General A. A. Humphreys, Chief Engineer; embracing the result of the different Expeditions under Lieutenant George M. Wheeler, Corps of Engineers.

Some time ago, Lieut. Wheeler presented to the Chief of Engineers the plan of a systematic survey west of the hundredth meridian, dividing it into sections of sixteen to eighteen thousand square miles, such of them, however, as were on the borders of the United States being fractional and of less dimensions. The whole number of proposed sections amounts to ninety-five, of which the longest line consists of thirteen, along the one hundredth meridian; nine, again, occupy the width of the area in question, on the forty-ninth parallel from the one hundredth meridian to the Pacific Ocean. The amount of work actually accomplished in the several sections is indicated by Lieut. Wheeler; the object being a systematic survey of the region, each section to be represented by a special map, and the whole intended to constitute a complete topographical atlas of Western North America. In the present work we have the first number of the proposed atlas, embracing six sheets; the first reproducing the sketch-map, with its ninety-five subdivisions already referred to, and showing the routes of exploration on the part of the expeditions of the War Department; the second being a map of the areas of drainage to the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans, and of the interior basins of the United States; while, in the remainder of the atlas, we have the details of sections 50, 58, 59, and 66, given on the scale of one inch to eight miles, each covering a little more than a degree and a half of latitude, and nearly three degrees in longitude. It is on a sufficiently large scale to exhibit most of the physical features in considerable detail, although not equal in this respect to Mr. King's maps, which have four inches to the mile. As embracing the result of the surveys on the part of Lieutenant Wheeler, the work, when finished, cannot fail to add much to our knowledge of the physical geography of the country. We notice a considerable want of clearness in the details of execution of the maps, especially in the lettering, but this is probably inseparable from the method of their execution, which is apparently from photolithographic reductions from the manuscript sheets. A more important defect is the small number of mountain elevations laid down from which to form an idea of the comparative elevations. Both shortcomings will doubtless be remedied when the maps are actually engraved and additional explorations prosecuted; if, indeed, the missing data be not already in the note-books of the office.

* Publishers will confer a favor by always marking the price of their books on the wrapper.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	Publishers.—Prices.
Allen (J. H. and W. F.) and Greenough (J. B.), Poems of Virgil, Vol. I.	(Ginn Bros.) \$1 75
Alcibiades: a Tale.	(Henry Holt & Co.) 1 25
Baker (G. M.), The Reading Club and Handy Speaker.	(Lee & Shepard) 0 50
Campbell (L. J. and Root (O., Jr.), The Columbian Speaker.	(A. K. Loring) 0 50
King's Cope: a Tale, swd.	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.) 0 25
Lippincott's Magazine, Vol. XIII.	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)
Littell's Living Age, Vol. 6, April-June, 1874.	(Littell & Gay)
Marlitt (E.), The Second Wife.	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)
Martin (Mrs. C. B.), Mount Desert Guide-Book.	(Loring, Short & Harmon)
Mason (G.), Compendious Dictionary of the French Language.	(Macmillan & Co.) 2 50
Maudsley (Dr. H.), Body and Mind.	(D. Appleton & Co.)
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THE WEEK IN TRADE AND FINANCE.

NEW YORK, July 13.

THE money market has remained very easy, with the rates ranging between 2 and 3 per cent. Commercial paper stands quoted at 6 to 7 per cent. for first-class names, while extra double-name paper having over four months to run has been placed at 5 per cent.

The bank statement on Saturday last showed important changes, and was a favorable one—the net surplus reserve having increased \$2,595,675 during the week. The large gain in specie is accounted for by the disbursements of the Treasury on account of the July interest on the public debt. The loss in legal tenders is in part accounted for by the recent shipments to Washington by the banks, for the purpose of complying with the requirements of the recently-passed currency law, but there are some indications that an attempt at "locking up" has been made by parties interested in depressing the stock market. The following is a comparison of the averages of the past two weeks:

	July 3	July 11.	Differences.
Loans.....	\$287,422,200	\$287,088,400	Dec... \$333,800
Specie.....	21,934,300	27,375,400	Inc... 5,441,100
Legal tenders.....	63,660,500	61,335,100	Dec... 2,325,400
Deposits.....	241,415,500	243,525,600	Inc... 2,080,100
Circulation.....	25,863,900	25,923,700	Inc... 59,800

The following shows the relation between the total reserve and the total liabilities:

	July 2.	July 11.	Differences.
Specie.....	\$21,934,300	\$27,375,400	Inc... \$5,441,100
Legal tenders.....	63,660,500	61,335,100	Dec... 2,325,400
Total reserve.....	\$85,594,800	\$88,710,500	Inc... \$3,115,700
Reserve required against deposits.....	60,361,375	60,881,400	Inc... 520,025
Excess of reserve above legal requirements.....	25,233,425	27,829,100	Inc... 2,595,675

Gold has drooped since the large disbursements of July interest, and has been very steady for the past two or three days at 109½ to 110. Large amounts of exchange making against shipments of produce, with lighter purchases in foreign markets, account for the estimate put upon the gold premium by international traders.

Nothing positive has transpired in regard to the offers which are supposed to have called out the circular invitation of Secretary Bristow for the remainder of the five per cents. Government bonds have been firm at the lower prices; the five per cents being fully one per cent. above their par, in gold, here and in London.

The following are the latest quotations:

	BID.	ASKED		BID.	ASKED
Registered 6's, 1881.....	115½	116	Coupons 5-20, new, 1865.....	116	116½
Coupons ".....	117½	117½	Registered 5-20, 1867.....	115½	115½
Registered 5-20, 1862.....	112½	113	Coupons ".....	117	117½
Coupons ".....	112½	113	Registered 5-20, 1868.....	116	116
Registered 5-20, 1864.....	115	115	Coupons ".....	116½	117
Coupons ".....	115½	116	Registered 10-40's.....	112½	112½
Registered 5-20, 1865.....	115	115	Coupons ".....	112½	112½
Coupons ".....	116½	116½	Registered 5's, 1881.....	112½	112½
Registered 5-20, new, 1865.....	115	115½	U. S. Currency 6's.....	116½	117

Railroad bonds have been quiet, at prices generally up to last week. The Pacific issues, as well as some other large mortgages, have suffered a trifling decline. The amount of this class of investments offering is in excess of the saving power of our people to absorb; but as little new paper of the kind is making, a gradual improvement may be looked for.

Railroad shares have been up and down during the week, the Western stocks being among the sufferers. Although the action of the courts in regard to the hostile legislation contains no new or sudden departure from the well-settled proceedings in like cases, the slightest circumstance is used in Wall Street to depress prices. Rock Island, Northwestern, St. Paul, even Chicago, Burlington and Quincy, have been disturbed. Erie is reported stronger on the knowledge of what took place at the election to-day. The new board of direction is said to foreshadow a unity of purpose between the Pennsylvania and Erie interests, and, if so, will be a gain of strength to both.

The following shows the highest and lowest sales of the leading stocks at the Stock Exchange for the week ending Saturday, July 11, 1874:

	Monday.	Tuesday.	Wed'day.	Thursday	Friday.	Saturday	Sales.
N. Y. C. & H. R.....	99½ 100	99 99½	99½ 99½	99½ 99½	97½ 99½	99 99½	19,100
Lake Shore.....	73 73½	74½ 75	74½ 75	71½ 73½	70½ 74	72½ 73½	2,630
Erie.....	31½ 32½	30 31½	30½ 31	30½ 30½	30 31½	31½ 32½	63,100
Union Pacific.....	26½ 27½	26½ 27	26½ 27	25½ 26½	25½ 26½	25½ 26½	54,900
Chi. & N. W.....	40½ 41½	39½ 40½	39½ 40½	38½ 39½	38 38½	37 37½	80,500
Do. pfd.....	58½ 59	58 58½	58½ 58½	58 58	58 58	58½ 58½	5,100
N. J. Central.....	100½ 100½	100½ 100½	100½ 100½	100½ 100½	100½ 100½	100½ 100½	200
Rock Island.....	99½ 100½	98½ 99½	98½ 98½	98½ 98½	98 98	97½ 97½	54,400
Mil. & St. Paul.....	36½ 37	35½ 36½	35½ 36½	35½ 36½	35½ 36½	35½ 36½	37,300
Do. pfd.....	56½ 57	55 55½	54 54½	54½ 54½	54½ 54½	54½ 54½	4,000
Wabash.....	36½ 37½	35½ 36½	35½ 36½	35½ 36½	35½ 36½	35½ 36½	55,400
D. L. & W.....	102½ 102½	102½ 102½	102½ 102½	106 106	105 105	105 105	3,400
O. & M.....	25½ 25½	25½ 25½	25½ 25½	25½ 25½	25½ 25½	25½ 25½	8,100
C. C. & I. C.....	18½ 18½	18½ 18½	17½ 18	17½ 18	17½ 18	17½ 18	2,600
W. U. Tel.....	74½ 74½	73½ 74½	73½ 74½	70½ 73½	70 72½	71½ 72½	143,400
Pacific Mail.....	42½ 43½	43 43½	43 43½	42 43	42 43	42½ 43	32,600

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